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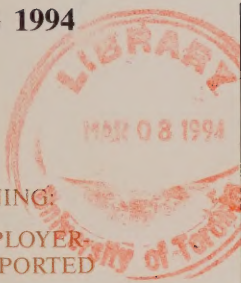


PERSPECTIVES

ON LABOUR AND INCOME

3

SPRING 1994



■ TRAINING:

- EMPLOYER-SUPPORTED
- WORKER-INITIATED
- RECENT INFORMATION

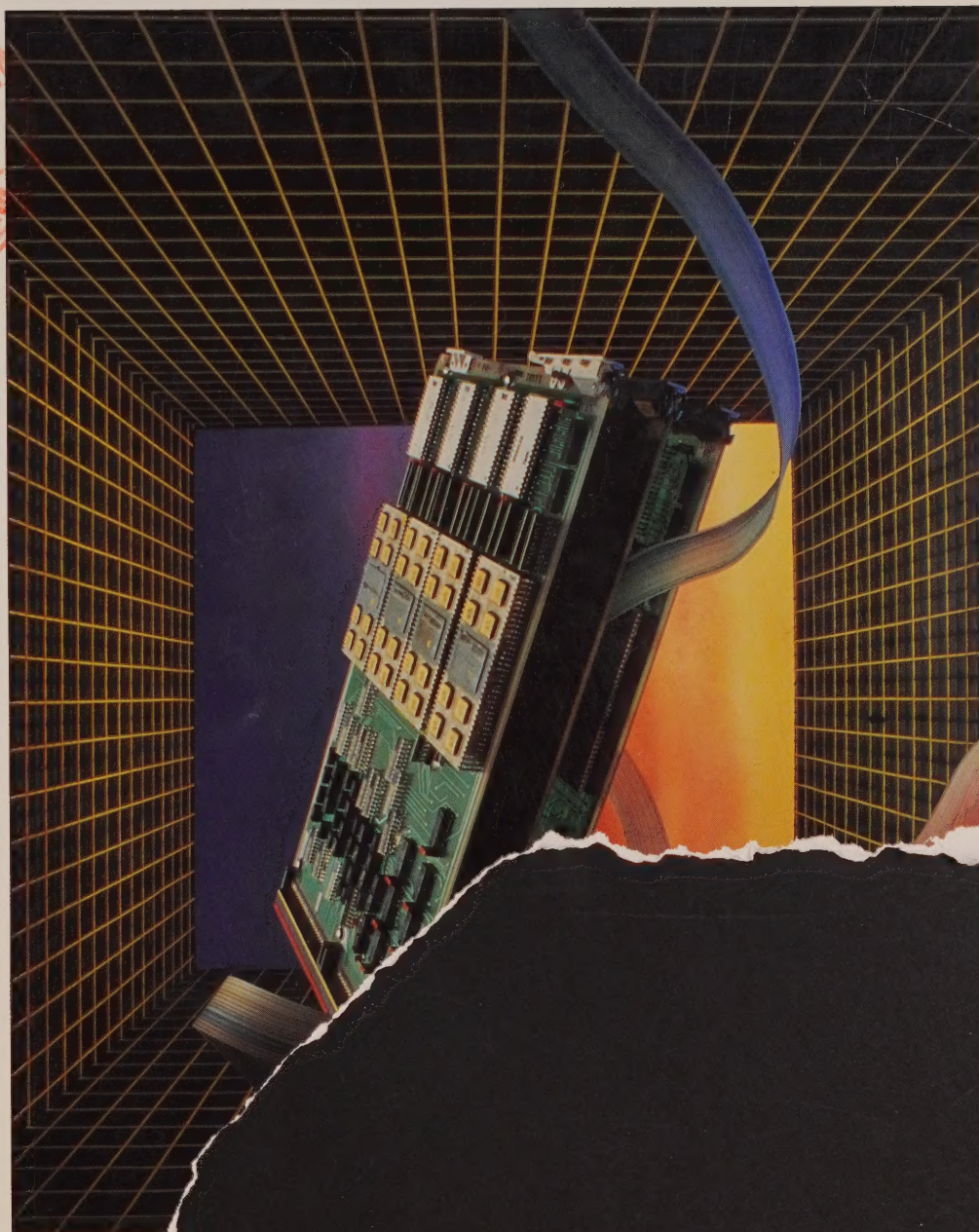
■ '93 IN REVIEW

■ JUGGLING WORK AND FAMILY

■ NOT AT SCHOOL, NOT AT WORK

■ RRSP WITHDRAWALS

■ WORKPLACE HAZARDS



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ON LABOUR AND INCOME

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PERSPECTIVES

ON LABOUR AND INCOME

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Symbols

The following standard symbols are used in Statistics Canada publications:

- .. figures not available
- ... figures not appropriate or not applicable
- nil or zero
- amount too small to be expressed
- p preliminary figures
- r revised figures
- x confidential to meet secrecy requirements of the Statistics Act

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Forum

Letter from the Editor-in-Chief

■ The United Nations has proclaimed 1994 the International Year of the Family. As a publication devoted to labour market and income issues, *Perspectives* is a "natural" to recognize this specially designated year. Balancing work and family is one of the principal labour market issues of the decade, and until the tensions between these two important aspects of our lives are resolved, this topic will remain at the centre of much debate.

Perspectives has often contributed to the work-and-family discussion; our articles have explored the impact of government transfer payments on family income, alimony and child support, the growing contribution of women's earnings to family incomes, dual-earner families, child-care arrangements of working mothers, the division of housework between working parents, and the labour market experiences of female lone parents.

The standing-room-only crowd at Statistics Canada's September 1993 Symposium on the Family and Work Arrangements (see "What's new?") shows that people's interest in this topic is widespread. In addition, the many requests for family-related articles we receive via the *Perspectives* readership questionnaire suggest that we should be providing more information. So we are doing just that. In this issue of *Perspectives*, Katherine Marshall discusses the impact of children on the work patterns of parents who

are "Balancing work and family responsibilities." If any aspects of the work and family issue are of particular interest to you, please mention them when you send in your readership questionnaire.

Speaking of letting us know, training is clearly on many readers' minds – it is one of the topics most often suggested for further examination – and in this issue we address some of the questions you have raised. Ken Bennett, Assistant Director of the Education, Culture and Tourism Division, is well-placed to write "Recent information on training." His article discusses data sources on adult training and outlines some of the education and training surveys Statistics Canada currently has "in the field." Susan Crompton has used the results of one of those surveys, the 1992 Adult Education and Training Survey, to review two common questions about training. "Employer-supported training – it varies by occupation" examines the training received by workers in different occupational groups; and "A note on the self-initiated training of job-losers" takes a brief look at the 134,000 adult job-losers who, in 1991, had enrolled in high school or postsecondary education programs.

Another frequent observation in the readership questionnaire is that *Perspectives* rarely publishes regional analysis. Many readers point out that Canada is composed of regional economies, and that it is remiss to neglect this aspect of the country's economic character. Most of the data in *Perspectives* articles are available at the provincial level. (This is not true of some smaller sample

surveys, which may produce good data for Ontario, for example, but nothing that can be released for Prince Edward Island.) As the national statistical agency, Statistics Canada must treat all regions equitably. Therefore, with rare exceptions (such as Hubert Frenken and Linda Standish's "RRSP withdrawals"), we cannot do studies of particular regions because they would, by definition, provide no information about how the element under discussion might affect other regions. Nevertheless, while "Key labour and income facts" and "The labour market: Year-end review" may not be substitutes for regional studies, we do recognize the importance of regional data, and publish time-series indicators at the provincial level where possible.

So, if we cannot publish regional studies, can we at least provide readers with regional, provincial or (if possible) sub-provincial data? Most definitely. We encourage readers to contact authors who, although not in the actual business of providing source data, are willing and able to act as honest brokers between inquisitive readers and the Division that produces the original data. I'm sure you'll be pleased with the speed and courtesy with which our colleagues provide the necessary figures, and with the moderate cost of their services.

Ian Macredie
Editor-in-Chief

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Letter to the Editor

■ We continue to find your *Perspectives* journal most informative and interesting. For example, the Spring 1993 issue contained

We welcome your views on articles and other items that have appeared in *Perspectives on Labour and Income*. Additional insights on the data are also appreciated, but to be considered for publication, communications should be factual and analytical. We encourage readers to inform us about their current research projects, new publications, data sources and upcoming events relating to labour and income.

Statistics Canada reserves the right to select and edit items for publication. Correspondence, in either official language, should be addressed to: Susan Crompton, Forum and What's new? Editor, *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, 5-D Jean Talon Building, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6. Telephone (613) 951-0178; fax (613) 951-4179.

several articles of considerable interest for our own work. The year-end review of the labor market helps us keep up with Canadian employment and unemployment developments; the article on lone parents is related to our international work on the family; and the article on Canadian productivity is useful for our international work in that area. In the Summer issue, we were pleased to see the Akyeamong-Winters article which used our LABSTAT database on international employment data by sector.

Sincerely yours,

Edwin R. Dean
Associate Commissioner for
Productivity and Technology
Bureau of Labor Statistics
U.S. Department of Labor

□

Highlights

Here are some key findings from the articles in this issue of Perspectives on Labour and Income.

Employer-supported training – it varies by occupation

■ Approximately 3.1 million full-time workers aged 20 to 69 took employer-supported education or training in 1991. Over 665,000 full-time workers spent more than 35 hours taking employer-supported training courses that year, and about 408,000 were enrolled in education programs.

■ Of these 1.1 million full-time workers, those in white-collar occupations were more likely to be beneficiaries of employer-supported training. Over 1 in 10 white-collar workers spent more than 35 hours "on course" in 1991, compared with fewer than 1 in 20 for both service and blue-collar workers. The pattern was similar for workers enrolled in education programs supported by their employers.

■ Two fields of study accounted for the majority of employer-supported programs or courses taken by these trainees in 1991: commerce, management and business administration; and engineering and applied science technologies and trades (which includes data processing and computer science).

■ Payment of fees was the most common type of support received by trainees taking more than 35 hours of courses (employers paid for 84% of all employer-supported courses), followed by getting time off (77%). While employers also paid the fees for most trainees in education programs (83%), they were less prepared to give time off (56%).

■ Slightly more than two-thirds (69%) of the courses taken by "over-35-hour trainees" in white-collar occupations had been employer-initiated; in the remaining cases, the request for training came most often from the trainees themselves. On the other hand, a far higher proportion of blue-collar trainees (86%) were explicitly asked by their employer to go on course.

A note on the self-initiated training of job-losers

■ When someone loses a job, what options does that person have? In 1991, some 134,000 job-losers aged 25 to 54 had taken, of their own volition, a certificate, diploma or degree program in an educational institution. By January 1992, almost one-third (31%) of these self-initiated trainees had completed their program; of those who had not completed it, 82% were still enrolled.

■ Compared with job-losers who did not take training (unemployed non-trainees), relatively high proportions of self-initiated trainees had worked in white-collar occupations or in service industries.

■ Self-initiated trainees were relatively young: the majority of them (60%) were aged 25 to 34, compared with fewer than half (46%) of unemployed non-trainees. As well, over one-fifth (21%) of self-initiated trainees were unattached individuals, compared with 16% of unemployed non-trainees.

Recent information on training

■ The current popular belief in a "lifelong learning culture" has garnered much government, business and media attention on how people acquire new knowledge and skills, who provides the training, the costs involved, and the degree to which this training maintains competitiveness.

■ As a result of several Statistics Canada initiatives started in the mid-1980s, a growing volume of data is now available to answer these questions. These early efforts increased knowledge on the subject and contributed to the improvement of data collection methodologies.

■ In collaboration with survey sponsors, Statistics Canada continues to develop and implement new surveys dealing with the period following the initial years of formal education (e.g., the Adult Education and Training Survey, the National Training Survey, and the Private Schools Survey).

Balancing work and family responsibilities

■ More Canadian couples than ever before are juggling family and employment obligations. Dual-earner couples with young children are the most likely to have different work schedules, with at least one partner not working the traditional 9-to-5 or Monday-to-Friday work week.

■ The proportion of dual-earner couples with both spouses working full time was 86% for those with no children, but just 66% for those with preschool children at home.

■ Dual-earner couples with no children are the most likely to both work daytime schedules (64%) or weekdays only (60%). Couples with children under six at home have the lowest rates: 57% and 50%, respectively.

■ Women with young children at home have comparatively low labour force participation rates. Only 68% of women with preschool children were in the labour force in 1991. This compares with 84% of women with older children at home and 90% of women without children.

■ Among women with children under six at home, close to a third work part time outside the home. This is more than three times the rate for those with no children.

Youths – waiting it out

■ While recessions tend to be difficult for most people, their effects can be especially hard and prolonged for the young. In November 1989, 67% of Canada's youths were in the labour force; by November 1993, this proportion had dropped to only 60%.

■ The proportion of youths aged 15 to 24 who have never held a job rose sharply from 10% in November 1989 to 16% in November 1993.

■ By November 1992, adult employment had surpassed pre-recession levels; however, youth employment was still down 376,000 (-17%) from three years earlier, and their employment rate (employment/population ratio) languished at 50.0%. As of November 1993, the situation had not improved, with only 49.8% employed.

■ More young people are staying in, or returning to, school. In November 1993, 56% of youths were attending school full time, up from 49% in November 1989.

■ Part-time school attendance edged up over the last four years, from 3% to 4% of the youth population. Labour force participation tends to be very high among these students, as they are able to juggle academic and work demands.

RRSP withdrawals

■ More and more Canadians with RRSP savings are dipping into these funds before the normal retirement age. In 1991, 604,000 Canadians under 65 years of age – 22% more than in 1990 – cashed in almost \$3.2 billion of their RRSP savings, an increase of 27% from the previous year.

■ Provincially, the largest 1991 average withdrawal by individuals under 65 was in Ontario (\$5,640), followed by Quebec (\$5,340). Ontario also had the highest rate of increase from 1990 to 1991 in the number of persons making withdrawals (29%), which may be associated with the dramatic drop in employment in the province that year.

■ One in four persons under 65 drawing on RRSP savings in 1991 was between 55 and 64, and they withdrew one-third of the \$3.2 billion. However, a striking 55% were under the age of 45, and they withdrew 42% of the total.

■ Nearly one in five taxfilers under 65 who withdrew RRSP savings in 1991 (16% of men and 24% of women) had neither employment nor Unemployment Insurance income that year.

Perceptions of workplace hazards

■ The extent to which workers perceive themselves to be exposed to potential hazards varies considerably. In 1991, exposure to dust or fibres was claimed by 4.9 million workers; VDTs affected 4.5 million; loud noise, 3.7 million; poor air quality, 3.2 million; and dangerous chemicals or fumes, 2.7 million.

■ Men in blue-collar jobs reported the highest levels of perceived exposure to most potential hazards. However, proximity to VDTs was more common in white-collar office jobs, many of which are held by women.

■ A sizeable share of Canadian workers encountered more than one potential hazard on the job. While 29% of workers reported just one hazard, 37% claimed that they were exposed to two or more.

■ A substantial proportion of Canadians exposed to potential workplace hazards believed that their health had been affected. Several health conditions such as allergies and migraine headaches seem to be slightly more prevalent among workers reporting exposure to potential hazards.

What's new?

■ *Schooling, Work and Related Activities, Income, Expenses and Mobility: 1991 Aboriginal Peoples Survey* provides data on the labour market and income characteristics of Aboriginal adults.

■ *A Portrait of Families in Canada* examines family demographic characteristics, labour force characteristics, income, expenditures, housing, time use, and domestic violence.

■ *Workplace Benefits and Flexibility: A Perspective on Parents' Experiences*, the most recent report from the National Child Care Network, examines parents' uses and perceptions of family-related policies and programs in the workplace.

■ In March 1994, a two-day workshop led by Statistics Canada methodologists will provide an overview of how to process questionnaires and a basic examination, interpretation and presentation of survey results.

■ The Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID), Labour Market Com-

ponent is now collecting its first year of labour and earnings data. This longitudinal survey will record events in a person's life that can influence economic well-being – such as moving, family formation and dissolution – and relate these events to changes in labour force participation and income. Data should be available in late 1994 or early 1995.

■ In September 1993, Statistics Canada, in collaboration with Labour Canada, organized the "Symposium on the Family and Work Arrangements." The conference focused on the complex issue of balancing work and family responsibilities. □

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Perspectives on Labour and Income

The quarterly for labour market and income information

Employer-supported training – it varies by occupation

Susan Crompton

The skills requirements of many occupations are changing rapidly. Few areas in the private or public sectors have not yet been challenged by the wholesale introduction of new technologies designed to enhance job performance, or by the increasingly complex demands of their client groups.

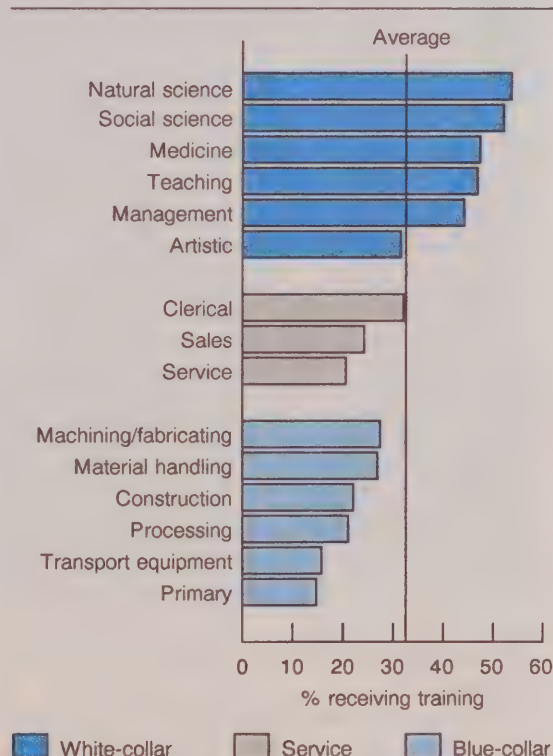
As occupations evolve, the workers in them must evolve too. In some cases, brushing up existing skills may suffice; in others, a complete overhaul may be necessary. The reasons for taking employment related training often colour the type of training taken: preparing for promotion to another job may require a different approach from that of improving the skills or knowledge needed in the present one. Whatever the reason, many workers are anxious to acquire new skills. And many of their employers are willing to help.

Almost one-third of all full-time workers aged 20 to 69 took employer-supported education or training in 1991, but rates of training varied greatly depending on the worker's occupation (Chart A).¹ Almost half (46%) of all workers in white-collar occupations received such training; on the other hand, just over one-quarter of service workers and one-fifth of blue-collar workers

received employer-supported training (see *Data source and definitions*).

Chart A

In 1991, workers in white-collar occupations were more likely to receive employer-supported training.*



Susan Crompton is with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division. She can be reached at (613) 951-0178.

Source: Adult Education and Training Survey, 1992

* Includes all courses, programs and on-the-job training.

Data source and definitions

The 1992 Adult Education and Training Survey (AETS), a supplement to the January 1992 Labour Force Survey, was sponsored by Employment and Immigration Canada (now Human Resources Development). Respondents aged 17 and older, in over 45,000 households, were asked to identify any structured education or training they had taken during 1991. The AETS collected data on the subject matter and other characteristics of up to five courses, and on five types of education programs: elementary or secondary school, apprenticeship training, trade or vocational school, community college, and university.

Since all labour force and demographic data from the AETS are derived from the January 1992 Labour Force Survey (LFS), which followed the reference period for the AETS (January 1991 to December 1991), some variables may not reflect the situation current at the time the training was taken. For example, by 1992, respondents may have been employed in an occupation different than that held during their training, and it is entirely possible that the training precipitated the change in occupation.

Workers: Persons aged 20 to 69 who were working full time at the time of the survey in January 1992. This category includes both paid employees and the self-employed.

Employer-supported training: Training or education for which the employer paid fees or tuition, paid for course materials, provided time off or educational leave, provided premises for learning or supplies, provided transportation or accommodation so the employee could attend training, gave the training, or provided other support.

Courses: This category includes workshops, seminars and tutorials, as well as courses.

Education programs: A combination of courses usually taken for credit toward a certificate, diploma or degree. Programs could be at the apprenticeship, trade/vocational, community college, or university level. High school programs are excluded from the analysis for two reasons: first, information about particular subjects cannot be obtained because the field of study for all high school completion is listed as "no specialization"; and second, so few full-time workers took employer-supported high school pro-

grams that the estimate did not meet data quality requirements.

Trades programs: To meet sample size requirements for some variables, apprenticeship and trade/vocational programs are aggregated.

Academic programs: To meet sample size requirements for some variables, college and university programs are aggregated.

Trainees: Workers who took structured employer-supported training – either education programs, courses or both – between January and December 1991.

White-collar occupations (trainees): the management, administrative, natural science, social science, teaching, medicine, artistic and recreation occupations.

Service occupations (trainees): the clerical, sales and service occupations.

Blue-collar occupations (trainees): the primary, processing, machining, fabricating, construction, transportation, material handling and other crafts occupations.

Over-35-hour trainees: Trainees who spent a total of more than 35 hours taking courses in 1991.

Program trainees: Trainees who enrolled in an education program in 1991, excluding elementary or secondary school.

Field of study: A highly aggregated grouping of related subject areas studied by course or program trainees. For example, the field of study "commerce, management and business administration" comprises the following subjects: business and commerce; financial management; industrial management and administration; institutional management and administration; marketing, merchandising, retailing and sales; and secretarial science – general fields. (See *Appendix* for the classification of subjects into fields of study.)

Subject: A topic studied by the course or program trainees, for example, library and record science, chemical technology, or public health.

Training courses versus education programs

Employers provide support for three types of training: on-the-job, where the worker learns by doing and seeking the advice or assistance of co-workers; structured training courses, where the worker is taught in a formal setting such as a workshop, seminar or tuto-

rial; and education programs, where the worker attends an educational institution and is pursuing studies that will lead to a certificate, diploma or degree. Since it can be argued that everyone receives on-the-job training, this study restricts itself to the two types of structured training, that is, training courses and education programs.

This article examines full-time workers aged 20 to 69² who spent a total of more than 35 hours taking training courses during 1991, or who had enrolled in an education program that year. The "over 35 hours" selection criterion was chosen since longer training hours, even when spread out over several courses, imply that the employer considered the training sufficiently worthwhile to justify supporting it. The training may have been taken during regular working hours or on the worker's own time.

Training courses

Almost 7% of full-time workers aged 20 to 69 – over 665,000 – spent over 35 hours taking employer-supported training courses in 1991. These over-35-hour trainees took an average of two courses in 1991.³

Workers in white-collar occupations were more likely to be beneficiaries of employer-supported training (see *Data source and definitions* for a description of white-collar, service and blue-collar occupations as used in this article). Over 1 in 10 (11%) spent a total of more than 35 hours "on course," compared with fewer than 1 in 20 service or blue-collar workers (Table). Among the specific occupations themselves, workers in the natural sciences topped the list of active course-goers: 19% of them had taken courses totalling over 35 hours, a rate more than double the 7% overall average. Managers and administrators recorded the second highest rate, at 12%. With the notable exception of machining and fabricating (6%), relatively few workers in blue-collar occupations (4% or less) had a total of over 35 hours of training in 1991.

White-collar workers ask for training

Time after time, studies on training show that better-educated workers get more training than those with less formal schooling.⁴ "Better-educated" is generally a synonym for "white-collar" or "professional," which is cer-

tainly the case here; but it may also mean "better-informed" about training opportunities or about the general need for training.

Proportion of full-time workers taking employer-supported training courses, by industry and occupation*

	All course trainees	White- collar	Service	Blue- collar
	%			
All industries	6.9	11.3	4.6	4.3
Agriculture and other primary industries	5.0	--	--	--
Manufacturing	7.7	15.3	--	5.7
Transportation, communication and utilities	9.7	17.5	--	7.5
Trade	3.7	7.7	2.8	--
Finance, insurance and real estate	9.8	16.5	6.0	--
Community services	6.7	8.4	--	--
Business, personal and miscellaneous services	4.9	8.8	--	--
Public administration	13.5	17.7	11.5	--

Source: *Adult Education and Training Survey, 1992*

* Includes only those who took over 35 hours of training courses in 1991. Estimates for the construction industry are too small to be released separately.

Although employers were the principal initiators of course training for all over-35-hour trainees regardless of occupation, they played a much smaller role in prompting white-collar workers to take training. Slightly more than two-thirds (69%) of the courses taken by workers in white-collar occupations had been suggested by their employer; in the remaining instances, the request for training came most often from the employees themselves.⁵ On the other hand, a far higher proportion of blue-collar trainees (86%) were explicitly asked by their employer to go on course; in fact, in machining and fabricating – the blue-collar occupation

most likely to receive training – nine in ten courses had been initiated by the employer.⁶

Not only were white-collar workers more active in seeking out training opportunities, their numbers were the highest among the training population. The lower level of employer direction may also indicate that some of the courses taken by white-collar workers were more discretionary than those provided to workers in blue-collar jobs.⁷

But whether or not workers in a certain occupation are receiving training can be an indicator, albeit simplistic, of the importance that the employer attaches to a specific set of skills. It can also show a more general trend towards training in some specific occupations. For example, management and administrative workers are over-represented in the trainee population; that is, they account for 17% of all full-time workers aged 20 to 69 but 29% of over-35-hour trainees. Workers in natural science occupations are even more "favoured," in that they make up less than 5% of the working population but 12% of the trainees.

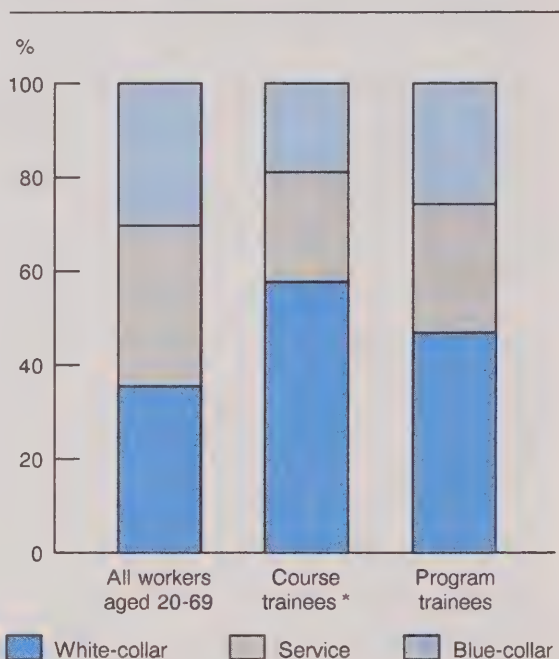
On the other hand, 16% of all workers are employed in clerical occupations, but only 12% of trainees have these kinds of jobs. Blue-collar workers are also under-represented, making up 30% of the employed population aged 20 to 69 but only 19% of trainees. Only machining and fabricating has a training profile that challenges the low rates recorded by the other blue-collar occupations: workers in machining and fabricating make up 10% of the workforce and about 9% of trainees (Chart B).

Industry of employment is a factor in training

It is extremely difficult to disentangle the influence of industry on occupation: the interdependence of the two suggests that the industry shapes the nature of the workers' functions. Thus, technological evolution in an industry often demands new skills of the workers it employs. For example, without the

Chart B

White-collar workers accounted for more than their share of trainees in both courses and programs.



Source: Adult Education and Training Survey, 1992

* Workers who took over 35 hours of training courses in 1991.

introduction of complex electronic equipment in most motor vehicles, few garage mechanics would now need to be proficient in the computer-assisted diagnosis of car trouble.

Some industries do show a marked propensity to train their workers. Public administration, where 13% of full-time workers spent a total of over 35 hours on course during 1991, recorded the highest training rates. Finance, insurance and real estate (10%) vied with transportation, communication and utilities (10%) for second position, while in manufacturing, almost 8% of employees spent at least 35 hours taking courses.⁸

Over half of trainees take commerce or engineering technologies

It may be assumed that the subjects studied by employer-supported trainees reflect the types of skills and knowledge the employer believes are necessary to perform the job. As such, they must point to the new demands of an occupation (or, alternatively, to the skills lacking in the existing workforce). It would appear that jobs in general are becoming more managerial, more technologically complex, and more concerned with occupational health and safety, since three fields of study accounted for almost two-thirds of all courses taken by all over-35-hour employer-supported trainees in 1991: commerce, management and business administration (31%); engineering and applied science technologies and trades, including data processing and computer science (24%); and health professions, sciences and technologies (10%). (See *Appendix* for a list of subjects comprising each field of study.)

Of course, the trainee's occupation was frequently associated with the particular field of study. For instance, 55% of courses taken by those in management and administration occupations were selected from the commerce, management and business administration field of study. Similarly, engineering and applied science technologies and trades (40%) dominated the courses taken by workers in machining and fabricating.

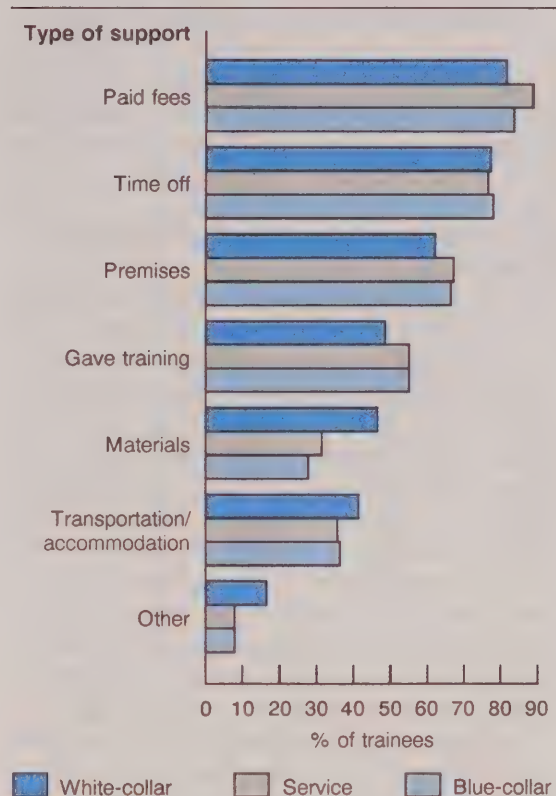
Support means the employer pays⁹

The type of support the over-35-hour trainees received from their employers took a number of guises. The most common type was payment of fees, as employers paid for 84% of all employer-supported courses. Giving time off (77%) and providing premises or supplies (64%) ranked second and third. Since granting time off was so common, it would appear that most training was done during working hours (Chart C).

Many employers actually offered the training themselves; in fact, this was the

Chart C

Employer support of course trainees* took a variety of forms.



Source: *Adult Education and Training Survey, 1992*

* Workers who took over 35 hours of training courses in 1991.

fourth most common type of employer support, characterizing 51% of all courses taken by the over-35-hour trainees. Trainees in blue-collar occupations were more likely to find themselves being taught this way, at almost 6 out of 10 courses.

But although the companies offered half the over-35-hour courses, company employees were involved in conducting only about 40% of them. Consultants gave 44% of the courses; educational institutions, about 21%; and "someone else" (such as a recreation association or church), about 22%.¹⁰ This reliance on "outsiders" may be

due to a number of reasons. For example, it could be more cost-effective, especially for small- and medium-sized firms, to hire trainers on contract as needed. Also, since equipment suppliers often provide training to their customers as part of the purchase package, some workers may learn to use new equipment from the manufacturer, not from their own employer.

New recruits least likely to get more than 35 hours of training

Since a well-trained worker may take his or her new knowledge to another company, it is often argued that employers are more willing to train a worker with some seniority than a new recruit. This position receives tepid support with respect to over-35-hour training. About 7% of all full-time workers with more than one year's tenure received over 35 hours of employer-supported training courses in 1991, compared with 5% of those with 12 months or less. It may be that recruits join the firm with the skills necessary for the job (many may be recent graduates), while older workers need retraining to keep up to date.¹¹

Some confirmation of this may be provided by the trainees themselves, about one-tenth of whom (11%) had 12 months or less job tenure, while almost 40% had more than 10 years. This is nowhere more startling than in the blue-collar occupations, where over half (56%) of over-35-hour trainees had more than 10 years' seniority with the same employer; by contrast, just over 42% of all blue-collar workers had the same length of service.¹²

Was it worth it?

By the end of 1991, over-35-hour trainees had completed about 91% of their courses and their opinion of them was, on the whole, favourable. Most (88%) were satisfied with the quality of their courses, characterizing the training they had received as adequate or very adequate.

Education programs

In 1991, employers supported about 408,000 full-time workers aged 20 to 69 taking education programs (excluding elementary or secondary school). These workers accounted for 4.2% of all full-time workers in that age group.

With respect to most labour market characteristics, there are no significant differences between workers who took training courses and those who took education programs with their employer's support. White-collar workers enrolled in education programs were more likely to receive employer support than workers in most service or blue-collar occupations; trainees came mainly from public administration, community services, or manufacturing industries; and the large majority studied either commerce, management and business administration or engineering and applied science technologies and trades. Even the relative sizes of the two groups were not that dissimilar, with those spending over 35 hours on course training accounting for 6.9% of full-time workers aged 20 to 69 and those taking education programs, for 4.2%. The remainder of this article therefore focuses mainly on those characteristics in which the two groups of trainees differ.

Program trainees more likely to take initiative

Perhaps the most important difference lies in what might be called employer attitude. Employers adopted an altogether more active role in the matter of training courses – being the principal initiators of course enrolment – but they were less inclined to send their workers on education programs. They suggested education programs for 56% of program trainees, significantly less than the 74% reported for course trainees. In the remaining cases, where employers had not explicitly suggested enrolling in an educa-

tion program, almost 9 out of 10 program trainees received support because they had requested it.

Employers may be reluctant to provide support to employees wanting to take degree, diploma or certificate programs if they question the program's relevance to the type of work the company does (for example, does an engineering firm need a sociologist?); they may also hesitate because academic programs generally take several years to complete, they may be more costly, and the employee may not remain with the company very long. In fact, employer-initiated support varied greatly depending on the type of program. Almost 70% of program trainees in trades-oriented programs were there at their employer's request. The proportion dropped to 59% for trainees in college and 35% for those in university.

The kind of support employers provided to workers who took education programs also differed somewhat from that offered to those on training courses. Employers paid the fees for 83% of programs (the same proportion as courses) but were less prepared to give time off (56%) or provide course materials (57%).

Wider array of subjects studied in academic programs

Occupation largely determined the type of institution in which trainees took their program. Almost three-quarters (73%) of blue-collar trainees were enrolled in apprenticeship programs or trade/vocational schools; meanwhile, 70% of all white-collar and 61% of all service program trainees were enrolled in college or university.

Two fields of study dominated the trades programs: engineering and applied science technologies and trades; and commerce, management and business administration (offered by trade/vocational schools). Among the academic programs, commerce, management and business administration

accounted for the largest group of trainees, but the range of remaining fields of study was quite diverse: social science, education, engineering technologies, and health.

Majority of trainees in trades finished program

As of January 1992, 55% of the trainees in trades programs had received their certificate or diploma. Those enrolled in trade/vocational programs (59%) were more likely than those taking apprenticeships (48%) to have completed their qualifications.

As one would expect, given the generally longer duration of the academic programs, only 30% of trainees in these types of programs had finished their degree or diploma by the end of 1991. About 40% of college and 23% of university program trainees graduated that year.

Summary

The training profiles of the various major occupations shown here confirm the findings of other studies and much of the anecdotal evidence. White-collar workers, on the front-line of the fast-growing and highly computerized "information economy," have high rates of employer-supported training. Blue-collar workers are also hard-pressed by computerization and automation, but they are less likely to receive training.

Two fields of study accounted for the majority of employer-supported training received in 1991: commerce, management and business administration; and engineering and applied science technologies and trades. Health sciences was also a common choice, especially among over-35-hour course trainees. The subject matter of employer-supported training confirms what everyone in the workplace has observed in recent years: that jobs are becoming more technology-driven and more complex. □

Notes

¹ The data in this paragraph and in Chart A include on-the-job training as well as structured training courses and education programs supported by the employer. All other charts, tables and data quoted in this article refer to structured training courses and education programs only.

² The 65 to 69 age group was included in order to capture more of the self-employed, 7.1% of whom are 65 or older compared with 1.3% of the paid workforce (1991 Census of Canada). People in this age group accounted for less than 1% of full-time workers receiving employer-supported training.

³ The AETS collected data for as many as five employer-supported courses taken during 1991. This captures virtually all such training, since the number of workers who took six or more courses was likely very small.

⁴ A review of training surveys conducted in a number of countries was undertaken by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. Results can be found in Chapter 5 of the OECD *Employment Outlook* (1991). See also Crompton (1992).

⁵ If the employer had not suggested the training, respondents were asked who had initiated it: "you or other employees requested it"; "written in the collective agreement"; "union recommended or provided it"; "legal or professional requirement"; "other"; or "don't know."

⁶ Only a negligible percentage of blue-collar over-35-hour trainees reported that their course enrolment had been initiated by their union or terms of collective agreement. However, trainees might respond that their employer had suggested the training if they were not aware that the employer was obliged to provide it by the union or collective agreement (the primary initiator).

⁷ It is possible that service and blue-collar workers face higher barriers to training than white-collar workers. Only 4.4%, or 421,000, of full-time workers had not taken training they felt they needed for career- or job-related reasons. Blue-collar workers (5%) were more likely than either white-collar (4%) or service (4%) workers to have needed but not taken training. The

three most common reasons for not taking job-related training were: too busy (41%), training programs not offered (29%), and too expensive/have no money (24%). Service workers (33%) were most likely to report that training had not been offered. Blue-collar (28%) and white-collar workers (26%) were more likely than service workers (18%) to cite expense as a barrier to training.

⁸ Since manufacturing is currently undergoing considerable restructuring, it is not surprising that the workers it trained spent many hours studying. But even though manufacturing claimed 48% of over 35-hour trainees in blue-collar jobs (the large majority of whom were in machining and fabricating occupations), less than 6% of all blue-collar workers in manufacturing received over 35 hours of employer-supported training. Taken together, these data seem to support the common contention (for example, Gera et al, 1993) that although manufacturing in the 1990s demands workers with greater skills, it requires fewer of them.

⁹ Respondents were presented with a choice of seven types of employer support: paying for fees or tuition; paying for course materials; providing time off or educational leave; providing premises or supplies; providing transportation or accommodation; giving the training; and providing any other support. Multiple answers were accepted; therefore, percentages will add to more than 100.

¹⁰ Multiple answers were accepted for this question; therefore, percentages will add to more than 100.

¹¹ Restricting the hours of training to more than 35 during the year cuts down the number of new recruits whose "welcome to the firm" orientation sessions might otherwise be captured as training.

¹² This may also reflect union rules about seniority. The difference in distribution among white-collar and service workers was less marked. The gap was almost non-existent among white-collar workers – 36% of all and 34% of over-35-hour trainees had over 10 years service – and was slightly higher among service workers – 33% of all and 38% of over-35-hour trainees had more than 10 years with the same employer.

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Appendix

Components of fields of study

Educational, recreational and counselling services

General education; elementary and primary education; secondary education; special education; non-teaching educational fields, counselling services and personal development; physical education, health and recreation; other education.

Fine and applied arts

Fine arts; music; other performing arts; commercial, promotional, graphic and audio-visual arts; creative and design arts; other applied arts.

Humanities and related fields

Classics, classical and dead languages; history; library and records science; mass media studies; English, French and other languages and literature; philosophy; religious studies; other humanities and related fields.

Social sciences and related fields

Anthropology; archaeology; area studies; economics; geography; law and jurisprudence; man and environmental studies; political science; psychology; sociology; social work and social services; war and military studies; other social sciences and related fields.

Commerce, management and business administration

Business and commerce; financial management; industrial management and administration; institutional management and administration; marketing, merchandising, retailing and sales; secretarial science – general fields.

Agricultural and biological sciences and technologies

Agricultural science and technology; animal science technologies; biochemistry, biology and biophysics; botany; household science and related fields; veterinary medicine and science; zoology; other agricultural and biological sciences and technologies.

Engineering and applied sciences

Architecture and architectural engineering; aeronautical and aerospace engineering; biological and

chemical engineering; civil engineering; design and systems engineering; electrical and electronic engineering; industrial engineering; mechanical engineering; mining, metallurgical and petroleum engineering; resources and environmental engineering; engineering science and engineering, n.e.c. (not elsewhere classified); forestry; landscape architecture.

Engineering and applied science technologies and trades

Architectural technology; chemical technology; building technologies; data processing and computer science technology; electronic and electrical technologies; environmental and conservation technologies; general and civil engineering technologies; industrial engineering technologies; mechanical engineering technologies; primary industries and resource processing technologies; transportation technologies; other engineering and applied science technologies, n.e.c.

Health professions, sciences and technologies

Dentistry; general and basic medical science; medical specializations (non-surgical); paraclinical sciences; surgery and surgical specializations; nursing and nursing assistance; optometry; pharmacy and pharmaceutical sciences; public health; rehabilitation medicine; medical laboratory and diagnostic technology and medical treatment technologies; medical equipment and prosthetics; other health professions, sciences and technologies, n.e.c.

Mathematics and physical sciences

Actuarial science; applied mathematics; chemistry; geology and related fields; mathematical statistics and mathematics; metallurgy and materials science; meteorology; oceanography and marine sciences; physics; general science.

Miscellaneous

Upgrading; personal development; recreational activity.

A note on the self-initiated training of job-losers

Susan Crompton

Education and training are now widely prescribed as an antidote to unemployment: improving skills is seen as essential by workers trying to safeguard their jobs. Indeed, one-third of full-time workers took some kind of employer-supported training in 1991. But does training play any role for workers who have lost their jobs?

This note looks at people who, in January 1992, were job-losers, that is, they were without work because they had lost or been laid off their last job. Those who had taken an education program of their own volition in 1991 are compared with those who had not. The focus is on job-losers aged 25 to 54, since many youths have a stronger attachment to the school system than to the labour market, and a substantial proportion of older job-losers slip from unemployment into retirement.¹

Job-oriented job-losers

In January 1992, about 641,000 Canadians aged 25 to 54 were "job-oriented job-losers." That is, they were without work because they had lost or been laid off their last job, yet their actions indicated that they were apparently interested in finding employment. In the analysis that follows, they are classified into one of two subgroups of job-oriented job-

losers: "unemployed non-trainees" or "self-initiated trainees" (see *Data source and definitions*).

Most job-oriented job-losers were unemployed (79%), meaning that they devoted their efforts to looking for work, or were waiting for a new job to start in the next four weeks, or were on temporary layoff. They were "unemployed non-trainees."

On the other hand, about one in five job-oriented job-losers took a different approach to the search for work. In 1991, they had enrolled, of their own volition, in an education program through which they hoped to eventually obtain a certificate, diploma or degree. They were "self-initiated trainees."

Self-initiated training

In 1991, 134,000 self-initiated trainees aged 25 to 54 were enrolled in a certificate, diploma or degree program in an educational institution. By January 1992, almost one-third (31%) had finished their program; of those who had not finished, 82% were still enrolled. The data suggest that for many trainees, enrolling in an education program was a direct response to unemployment, since 73% of trainees had been without work at the time they took it. Furthermore, by January 1992, more than half (53%) had been without a job for more than six months; by contrast, only one-third (33%) of unemployed non-trainees had been without work for that length of time.

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Data source and definitions

The 1992 Adult Education and Training Survey (AETS), a supplement to the January 1992 Labour Force Survey, was sponsored by Employment and Immigration Canada (now Human Resources Development). About 45,000 respondents aged 17 and over were asked to identify any structured education they had pursued during the 1991 calendar year.

Limitations

All labour force and demographic data related to the AETS pertain to January 1992, which follows the reference period for the AETS (January 1991 to December 1991). As a result, there are several significant gaps in this study. For example, it was not possible to identify job-losers who had taken a self-initiated education program while they were without work in 1991 but who were employed by January 1992. Nor was it possible to identify trainees who had found work after completing their program, but then slipped into joblessness by January 1992. In such cases, occupation data refer to their last job, not to the job they held before enrolling in the education program. Unfortunately, data limitations also preclude the analysis of at least one important question: "Does retraining help job-losers find work?"

Job-oriented job-losers: Persons aged 25 to 54 who were without work in January 1992 because they had lost or been laid off their last job and were either self-initiated trainees or unemployed non-trainees.

Self-initiated trainees: Job-oriented job-losers who had taken an education program in 1991 of their own

volition, and who were without a job in January 1992 (42% were unemployed; the remainder were not in the labour force). About 80% of trainees had enrolled specifically for job- or career-related reasons; however, all job-oriented job-losers who had enrolled in an education program, regardless of the reason, are included among self-initiated trainees, because improving one's education should improve employment prospects.

Unemployed non-trainees: Job-oriented job-losers who did not take a self-initiated education program in 1991 and were unemployed in January 1992. They may have taken training supported by their employer, but this does not meet the "self-initiated" criterion. The purpose of any employer-supported training is unknown, and indeed, it may have been offered to help workers deal with job loss.

Education program: A combination of courses provided by an educational institution, usually for credit toward a certificate, diploma or degree. Programs may be taken at the elementary/secondary, apprenticeship, trade/vocational, community college or university level.

Trades program: To meet sample size requirements, apprenticeship and trade/vocational programs have been combined in a "trades" category. Trade/vocational programs accounted for over three-quarters of trainees in the trades category.

Academic program: To meet sample size requirements, college and university programs have been grouped in an "academic" category. College students made up two-thirds of these self-initiated trainees.

Who takes programs?

Generally speaking, people in occupations that demand a high level of education are the most likely to acquire more education. To some extent, this observation applies to self-initiated trainees, 21% of whom had last been employed in "white-collar" jobs, compared with 15% of unemployed non-trainees. About 41% of self-initiated trainees were "blue-collar" workers, whereas 55% of unemployed non-trainees had worked in such occupations; another 38% of trainees had been service workers, compared with 30% of non-trainees. (For a description of the components of the white-collar, blue-collar and service occupational groups, see *Data source*

and definitions in "Employer-supported training – it varies by occupation" [Crompton, 1994] in this issue.)

The industries in which the two groups of job-oriented job-losers used to work reflect their occupations. Close to two-thirds (65%) of the self-initiated trainees had worked in service industries, mostly community services, public administration or commercial services (business, personal and miscellaneous services). By contrast, the industry profile of unemployed non-trainees was somewhat less heavily oriented toward services: 52% of them had been working in that sector before they lost their jobs.

Women made up a larger share (47%) of self-initiated trainees than unemployed non-trainees (32%). This disparity probably stems from the types of industries represented by the two groups,² although women's generally greater tendency to take adult education cannot be discounted (Haggard-Guénette, 1991).

To some degree, training is affected by the freedom one has to delay a job search and retrain. Self-initiated trainees were relatively young: the majority of them (60%) were aged 25 to 34, compared with fewer than half (46%) of unemployed non-trainees. As well, 21% of self-initiated trainees were unattached individuals, compared with 16% of unemployed non-trainees. Of those who were living with their family, 64% of self-initiated trainees were in families where one or more members were working, as opposed to 58% of unemployed non-trainees. However, the total personal income of 72% of self-initiated trainees was under \$15,000 in 1991, compared with 54% of unemployed non-trainees.

What do they study?³

The programs in which self-initiated trainees enrolled presumably reflected the type of employment they hoped to obtain. The program and field of study chosen were probably also based on a combination of other factors, such as the program's availability and the trainee's previous educational attainment. It is even possible that some trainees returned to complete programs which they had previously interrupted.

In 1991, the largest proportion (41%) of trainees were enrolled in academic programs, and a further 36% were in trades; the remaining 23% were completing elementary or high school (see *Data source and definitions*).

The majority of trainees were studying full time. About 58% of those in academic programs were full-time students, as were close to 60% of trades trainees. By contrast, just under half of elementary/secondary school trainees were studying full time.

Excluding elementary/secondary programs, which do not specify subject matter, the most common field of study in both academic and trades programs – chosen by 32% of trainees – was engineering and applied sciences and technologies, which includes data processing and computer science. The second most popular field was commerce, management and business administration (28%). Social science and the humanities together attracted 20% of trainees. (For a description of the components of the major fields of study, see *Appendix* of "Employer-supported training – it varies by occupation" in this issue.)

Who pays?⁴

Over half the self-initiated trainees (57%) paid for their studies themselves and/or received assistance from a family member.⁵ The higher the level of education, the more likely were trainees or their families to pay the costs; the proportion peaked at 72% for trainees in academic programs.

Close to four out of ten trainees (38%) received government assistance.⁶ Such support was most likely to be given for high school studies, with the proportion of trainees receiving government help falling at successively higher levels of education.

Summary

In 1991, one in five job-oriented job-losers (134,000) had chosen to enrol in an education program to improve their qualifications. Compared with unemployed non-trainees, relatively high proportions of these self-initiated trainees had worked in white-collar occupations and in service industries. Thus, it seems possible that they were more familiar with what could be described as a "training culture," that is, an employment environment in which education is regarded as a means to advancement. To a lesser extent, freedom to pursue their studies may also have been a factor in the decision to enrol, as trainees tended to be younger people with fewer family responsibilities. □

Notes

¹ Half (49%) of job-losers aged 17 to 24 were not looking for work in January 1992, and two-thirds (68%) of job-losers aged 55 and over had dropped out of the labour force.

² Men accounted for 78% of job-oriented job-losers in the goods-producing sector, which had a relatively low rate of training.

³ About 3% of trainees enrolled in more than one program in 1991; for example, a respondent may have completed high school and then enrolled in college.

⁴ Since this question allowed for multiple responses, the percentages add to more than 100.

⁵ This category also includes government loans, because they must be repaid by the student.

⁶ This category covers special programs such as retraining for the unemployed, as well as government scholarships, grants and bursaries.

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Recent information on training

Ken Bennett

At one time, most people could attend school, graduate and then join the labour market armed with all the formal education necessary to see them through their working life. A certain stability within industries, or at least a moderate pace of technological development, meant that the knowledge gained at school and the additional skills picked up on the job would be sufficient. Many workers stayed with one employer for most of their career; if they did move to another job, the requisite skills were largely transferable. Aside from apprenticeship training to learn a trade and employer-provided orientation for new workers, there was generally very little in the way of further systematic skills development.

Today, this approach to education and training is no longer adequate. Given the accelerating pace of technological change, skills must be constantly updated to remain relevant throughout an average working life. Moreover, individuals may have several "careers" with different employers before they retire. Consequently, a substantial share of the training needed to compete successfully in the workforce will be obtained after the initial years of formal education. In other words, it has become necessary to develop a "lifelong learning culture."

Government, business and the media have focused much attention on how people

acquire new knowledge and skills, who provides the training, what the costs are, and the degree to which this training maintains competitiveness. As a result of several Statistics Canada initiatives, there is now a growing volume of data that provide answers to these questions.

Early initiatives

In response to the demand for information on training and continuing education, Statistics Canada conducted several pioneering surveys in the mid-1980s.¹ Not only did these early efforts increase knowledge of the subject, but they also contributed to the evolution of methodologies for collecting such information. On the basis of these initiatives, Statistics Canada, in collaboration with survey sponsors, developed several new surveys: the Adult Education and Training Survey (AETS),² the National Training Survey, and the Private Training Schools Survey.

Adult Education and Training Survey

Sponsored by Employment and Immigration Canada (now Human Resources Development), the Adult Education and Training Survey was conducted as a supplement to the Labour Force Survey in November 1990 and January 1992. The main objective was to measure the participation of adults (aged 17 and older) in education and training and to develop a profile of these individuals.

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The AETS collected data on both courses and programs that respondents had taken during the previous 12 months. The emphasis was on job-related training, although data on other types of continuing education were also gathered. Because the AETS was a supplement to the Labour Force Survey, the socio-demographic and employment characteristics of training participants are also available. Respondents in approximately 45,000 households were interviewed. This sample size is large enough to provide data at both the national and provincial levels.

For more information about the AETS, contact Stephen Arrowsmith at (613) 951-0566.

National Training Survey

Under contract to the Canadian Labour Force Development Board, Statistics Canada is developing the National Training Survey (NTS). The NTS approaches training from the employer's perspective. The objectives are to obtain information about training in the private sector: how often it is offered, who provides and who receives it, how much money firms spend on it, and what types of training are available.

The sample for the NTS will be drawn from Statistics Canada's Business Register. The aim is to produce national and provincial estimates. The NTS is scheduled for 1994.

For more information about the NTS, contact Douglas Higgins at (613) 951-5870.

Private Training Schools Survey

Statistics Canada has collected data on the role of private training schools in the delivery of business and trade or vocational training since 1959. The most recent effort, the Private Training Schools Survey, was conducted in April and May 1993 as part of the College Statistics Enhancement Program, funded by Employment and Immi-

gration Canada (now Human Resources Development).

The survey provides data about the number and types of programs offered in private training schools (for-profit and non-commercial) and enrolment in these programs in 1992.

Approximately 6,100 organizations, covering a combination of provincially registered private training institutions and non-registered schools, were included in the survey. Estimates on a broad range of variables will be available by province.

For more information about the Private Training Schools Survey, contact Michel Cormier at (613) 951-0608.

Publications

The Education, Culture and Tourism Division of Statistics Canada has produced several reports based on the results of the above training surveys: "Private Business and Trade/Vocational Schools, 1986" (1988); "Adult Education and Training Survey, 1990" (1992); and "Full-time Enrolment in Trade and Vocational Programs in Canada, 1989-90" (1992). In September 1993, Employment and Immigration Canada (now Human Resources Development) released *The 1990 Adult Education and Training Survey: Summary Report of the Findings from the 1990 Adult Education and Training Survey*.

Training has also been a recurrent theme of articles in *Perspectives on Labour and Income*. In addition to the two articles in this issue, which use data from the 1992 AETS ("Employer-supported training - it varies by occupation" on pages 9-17 and "A note on the self-initiated training of job-loser" on pages 18-21), past editions have carried "Studying on the job" (Summer 1992); "Lifelong learning: Who goes back to school?" (Winter 1991); and "Training the work force: A challenge facing Canada in the '90s" (Winter 1990).

Related work

Two other surveys, the School Leavers Survey and the National Graduates Survey, lend additional insight into the training and continuing education activities of groups who have recently completed specific phases of their formal education: 18 to 20 year-olds who have left secondary school with or without graduation, and graduates of trade or vocational programs, community colleges, or universities.

School Leavers Survey

Employment and Immigration Canada (now Human Resources Development) commissioned Statistics Canada to conduct the first national School Leavers Survey (SLS) in the spring of 1991 using a sample of 18 to 20 year-olds selected from the Family Allowance files. Approximately 9,500 individuals were interviewed. Respondents were classified into three groups: non-completers (those who left high school without a diploma or certificate), continuers (those who were still in school), and graduates.

The survey gathered data on the factors that seem to predispose a teenager to leave school. Questions covered topics such as academic ability, attitudes toward school, and support from teachers and parents. Information on training or education taken after high school was also collected from non-completers and graduates.

For more information about the SLS, contact Douglas Higgins at (613) 951-5870.

National Graduates Survey

The National Graduates Survey (NGS), conducted under the sponsorship of Employ-

ment and Immigration Canada (now Human Resources Development), has a relatively long history. The first time the survey was carried out (1978), it collected information on the post-education activities of 1976 graduates of trade/vocational, college, and university programs. While the main purpose was to examine the labour market experiences of these groups in the years following their graduation, data were also gathered on their subsequent education and training activities and on their participation in specific government training programs.

Later surveys focused on the graduating classes of 1982, 1986, and 1990. As well, the classes of 1982 and 1986 were surveyed a second time, five years after graduation.

The NGS uses a sample selected from lists of graduates provided by the various institutions. For the 1990 survey, a sample of approximately 53,000 graduates was selected.

More information about the NGS is available from Phil Stevens at (613) 951-9481.

Summary

The data from many of these surveys have already been used to analyze the rising rate of participation in "lifelong learning." However, the full potential of these databases has yet to be tapped; much more analysis can be done before the information is exhausted. As well, work is already underway to improve these surveys and collect additional information to meet the needs of a wider group of data users. □

Notes

¹ These are the Adult Education Survey in 1984, the Adult Training Survey in 1986, and the Human Resources Training and Development Survey in 1987.

² Because the AETS differs from the 1984 and 1986 surveys in important respects, direct data comparisons are inadvisable. As well, due to changes in methodology, comparisons should not be made between the 1990 and 1992 AETS.

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Balancing work and family responsibilities

Katherine Marshall

More Canadian couples than ever before are now juggling family and employment obligations. Alternative work patterns, such as part-time, flexitime, home-based, shift and weekend work, are a means of accommodating employees with family responsibilities. Indeed, according to the 1991 Survey of Work Arrangements (see *Data source and definitions*), work patterns do differ by the presence and age of children. But having children, particularly preschool children, does not have the same effect on the employment patterns of **both** parents.

This article looks at the work patterns of dual-earner couples (including common-law) where the wife is aged 25 to 44 and both spouses have paid jobs.¹ These 2.9 million workers form a sizeable portion of the labour force (28%). As well, they are in the prime child-rearing ages. Results from the Survey of Work Arrangements (SWA) reveal differences between the work patterns of those dual-earners who do and those who do not have children, particularly if the children are younger than six years (preschool).

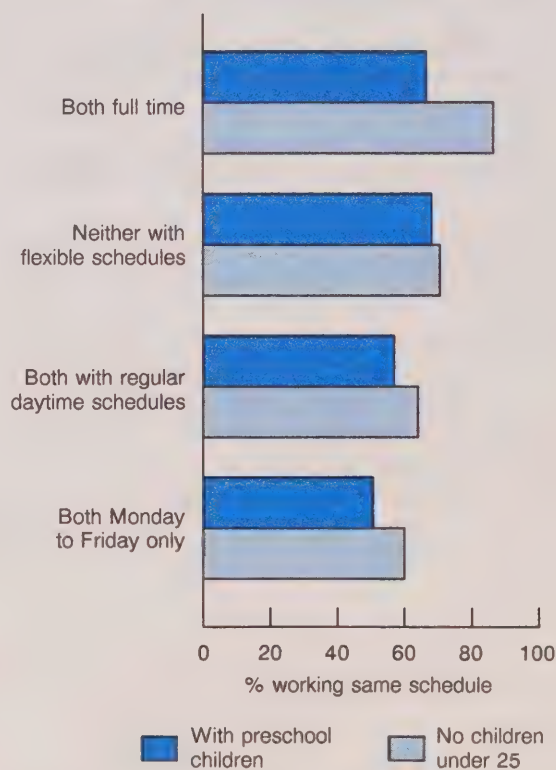
Children affect work patterns of dual-earner couples

The chances that husbands and wives in dual-earner couples will both work the same schedule are greatest if they have no chil-

dren. The proportion of dual-earner couples with both spouses working full time was 86% for those with no children, but just 66% for those with preschool children at home (Chart A). The incidence of daytime, weekday em-

Chart A

Dual-earner couples with preschoolers are less likely to work the same schedule.



Source: Survey of Work Arrangements, 1991

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Data source and definitions

The Survey of Work Arrangements (SWA), a supplement to the November 1991 Labour Force Survey (LFS), collected data on the weekly work schedules of paid workers.

Couples without children – couples with no children under 25 living at home. They may have children living elsewhere or older children at home.

Flexitime – a flexible schedule that allows workers to choose their start and end times within the limits established by management. Usual start times tend to range from 7 a.m. to 9 a.m.; end times, from 4 p.m. to 6 p.m.

Full-time/part-time employment – full-time employment comprises persons who usually work 30 hours or more per week, plus those who usually work less than 30 hours but consider themselves to be employed full time (for example, airline pilots). All other persons usually working less than 30 hours per week are part-time workers.

Home-based work – an arrangement where an employee does some or all of his or her paid work at home.

Irregular schedule – all employment that is not a regular daytime schedule; all forms of shift work are included.

Paid worker – any person who receives remuneration, usually in the form of a wage or salary or, very occasionally, in kind, from an employer.

employment is also lower if young children are present. Dual-earner couples with no children are the most likely to both work daytime schedules (64%) or weekdays only (60%). Couples with children under six at home have the lowest rates: 57% and 50%, respectively.

Flexitime can enable one parent to start work later and see the children off to school, while the other parent starts work earlier in order to be home when the children return. But the proportion of couples working flexitime is (slightly) higher only among those with preschool children.

Dual-earner parents with preschool children are less likely to both work the same schedule. This suggests that at least one parent changes some aspect of employment. In most cases, that person is the mother.

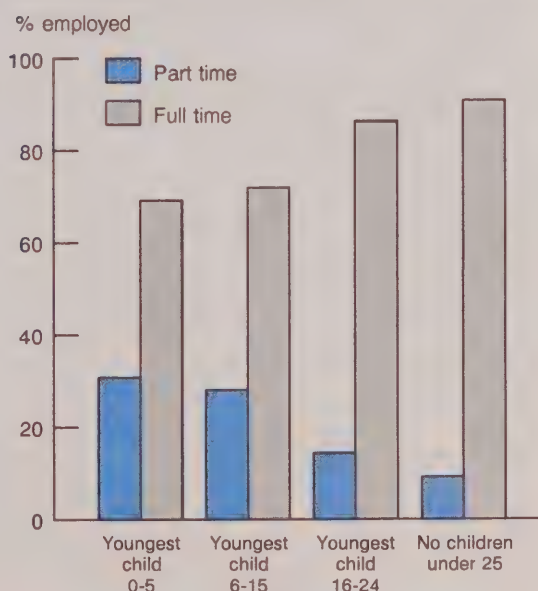
Mothers more likely to alter employment patterns

Tradition once held that when women married they usually left the workforce. Later, most women left only once they had children. Today, most married women, with and without children, remain in the labour force. However, many still do leave and others alter their work patterns. Men, on the other hand show the same employment patterns regardless of children (see *Men's work patterns*).

Although their labour force participation rates have increased sharply in recent years, women aged 25 to 44 with young

Chart B

Almost a third of wives in dual-earner couples with preschoolers work part time.



Source: Survey of Work Arrangements, 1991

Table 1
Work patterns of wives aged 25 to 44 in dual-earner families

	Total	Age of youngest child			No children under 25
		0-5	6-15	16-24	
Participation rate (%)	77	68	78	84	90
Average hours worked per week	34.5	32.7	33.6	36.1	37.4
Total employed ('000)	1,464	492	499	94	379
Full time (%)	77	69	72	86	91
Part time (%)	23	31	28	--	9
Percentage working:					
Weekdays only	67	62	67	68	74
Weekends	6	10	5	--	--
Flexible schedule	18	19	15	19	19
Some paid work at home	7	6	6	--	7
Irregular schedule	26	27	26	28	23

Source: Survey of Work Arrangements, 1991

Men's work patterns

Men in dual-earner couples with children under 25 at home have almost identical work patterns to those of men without children. The age of children at home also has little impact on men's work patterns. When men become fathers, their role as breadwinner continues to predominate.

Work patterns of husbands with wives aged 25 to 44 in dual-earner families

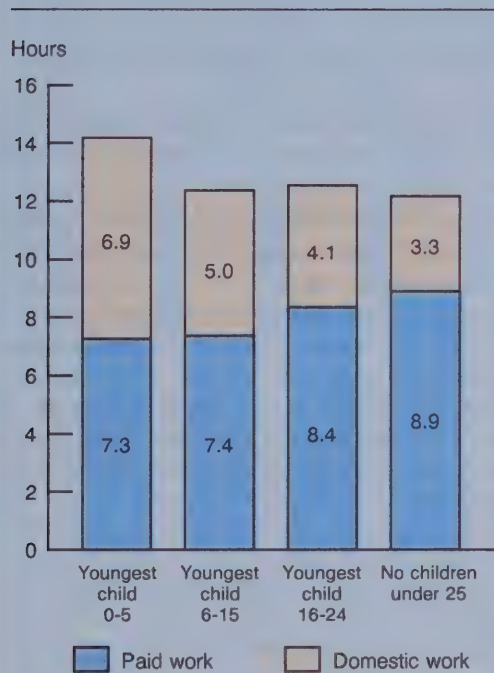
	Total	Age of youngest child			No children under 25
		0-5	6-15	16-24	
Participation rate (%)	94	95	95	93	94
Average hours worked per week	41.0	40.9	40.9	41.5	41.1
Total employed ('000)	1,464	492	499	94	379
Full time (%)	99	99	99	99	98
Percentage working:					
Weekdays only	76	75	79	75	72
Weekends	7	7	5	--	9
Irregular schedule	23	24	22	24	23

Source: Survey of Work Arrangements, 1991

Unpaid domestic work

Data from the 1992 General Social Survey show that the presence of children, particularly young children, is associated with decreased hours of paid work for women. However, this reduction in paid work is offset by an increase in the amount of domestic work performed. For example, when there are preschool children at home, wives in dual-earner families spend an average of 7.3 hours per day on paid work and 6.9 hours on unpaid

Average daily hours of paid work and unpaid domestic work* by wives in dual-earner couples



Source: General Social Survey, 1992

* Includes housework, caregiving for household members and shopping.

children at home still have comparatively low participation. Just 68% of women with preschool children were in the labour force in 1991. This compares with 84% of women in this age group with older children at home and 90% of those without children.

For women, parenthood is also accompanied by an increase in part-time employment (Chart B). Close to a third (31%) of women with children under six at home work outside the home part time, more than three times the rate for those with no children (9%). As a result, women with preschool children averaged 32.7 hours of paid work per week in 1991, compared with 37.4 hours for women with no children at home (Table 1).

But while women's labour force participation rates and hours of paid work are lower when there are children at home, their domestic workload and responsibility are greater. Thus, these women have substituted some paid work in the labour force for unpaid work at home (see *Unpaid domestic work*).

The likelihood of working only on weekdays also varies with the presence of children: 62% of women with preschool children work weekdays only, compared with 74% of those with no children. The relatively low rate of weekday work for the former group reflects their higher rates of varied work days (28%) and weekend work (10%).

Mothers' reasons for work patterns also vary

Overall, 26% of women work an irregular schedule. Their reasons for doing so differ according to the presence and age of their children. Almost one-third (30%) of women who work an irregular schedule and have preschool children give child care as the reason; the figure is just 10% for those with children in the 6 to 15 age range.

A relatively small proportion (6%) of women in dual-earner couples with young children report doing some of their paid work at home. And again, the reasons why these mothers work at home are resoundingly different from those of other women. Well over a third (37%) of mothers who do paid work at home and have preschool children state child care as their reason for working at home; this compares with 12% of women with children aged 6 to 15.

Table 2
Work arrangements of wives aged 25 to 44 in dual-earner families by occupation

	Average hours worked per week		% working full-time		% working Monday-to-Friday only	
	Youngest child 0-5	No children under 25	Youngest child 0-5	No children under 25	Youngest child 0-5	No children under 25
All occupations	32.7	37.4	69	91	62	74
Managerial and professional	32.6	38.0	68	95	63	75
Clerical	32.1	36.4	69	91	71	87
Sales	33.4	37.6	72	82	48	62
Service	31.5	34.7	57	72	34	46
Processing, machining and fabricating	37.7	39.3	94	98	86	80
Other*	--	--	79	76	77	74

Source: Survey of Work Arrangements, 1991

* Includes primary occupations, construction, transport equipment operating, material handling and other crafts.

Motherhood affects work patterns in all occupations

Regardless of their occupation, women with young children are the most likely to have modified work arrangements. For example, 95% of childless women in managerial and professional occupations work full time, compared with 68% of women in similar jobs who have preschoolers (Table 2). Furthermore, in all occupational categories, except processing, machining and fabricating, proportionately fewer women with young children work a Monday-to-Friday schedule only.

dules, with at least one partner **not** working the traditional 9-to-5 or Monday-to-Friday work week.

Of the two parents, it is almost always the mother who has a non-traditional work pattern. Compared with women without children, employed mothers with children at home spend fewer hours and days per week engaged in paid work. They are also more likely to work irregular schedules, varied days, and weekends. These arrangements are most common among mothers of preschoolers. □

Conclusion

Dual-earner couples with young children are the most likely to have different work sche-



1994 International Year of the Family

Note

¹ Information on work arrangements was asked only of persons with paid jobs (in the main job only). Self-employed persons were excluded.

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Youths – waiting it out

Deborah Sunter

One striking feature of the difficult labour market conditions in the first years of the 1990s has been the dramatic fall in labour force participation among Canada's youths. In November 1989, 67% were in the labour force; by November 1993 only 60% were either working or looking for work. While a contraction of labour force activity is typical during economic downturns, particularly among young people, the magnitude of this decline is unprecedented.¹ This note explores the recent labour market conditions for youths aged 15 to 24 years (See *Data sources*).

Labour market trends

The last 25 years have seen an upward trend in labour force participation among youths, interrupted only briefly during periods of economic recession (Chart A). Much of this increase is attributable to two factors: a long-term rise in the overall proportion of students, especially those aged 15 to 19, holding part-time jobs during the school year, and growing labour force participation among young women.

Increased participation, at least in the latter half of the 1980s, paid off: youths were generally successful at finding jobs during this period of economic expansion. Their

employment rate (that is, their employment/population ratio) peaked at an annual average of 62.3% in 1989, while their unemployment rate was 11.3%, the lowest in 14 years.

Since then, youths have borne a disproportionate share of job losses. By November 1992, adult employment had surpassed pre-recession levels, but youth employment was still down 376,000 (-17%) from three years earlier and their employment rate languished at 50.0%. By November 1993, the situation had not improved, with only 49.8% employed.

Ironically, 14% of the drop in youth employment has been in the service industries, even though these industries have shown slow but almost continuous employ-

Data sources

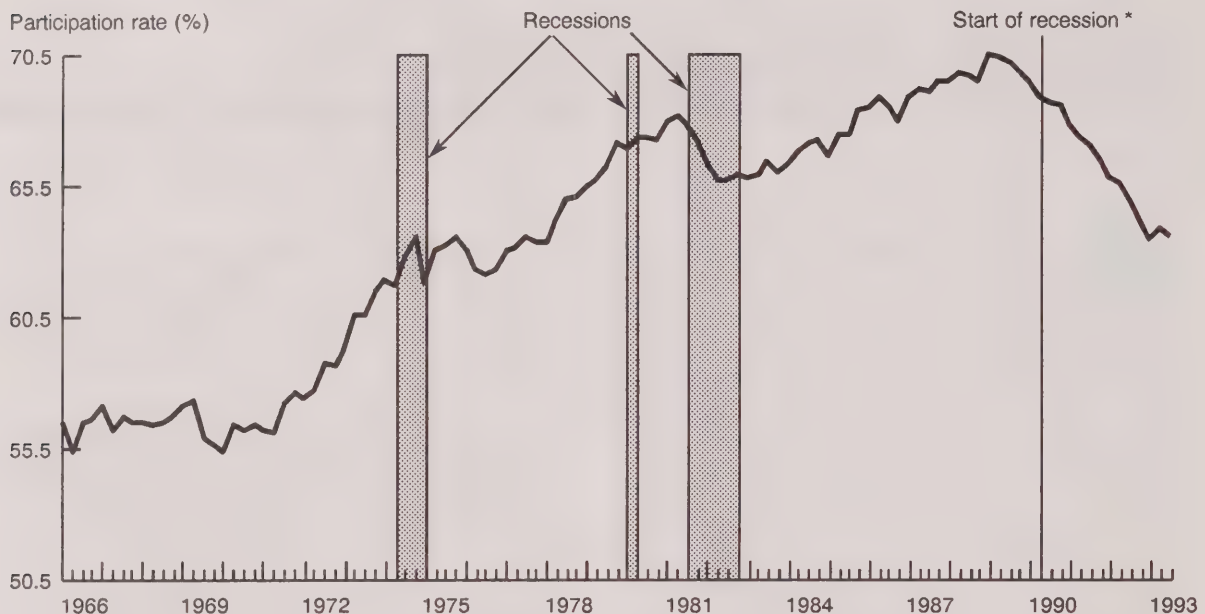
The data for this article are drawn from two sources. Estimates relating specifically to youths not in the labour force in November 1992 are from the Survey of Persons Not in the Labour Force, a supplement to the November 1992 Labour Force Survey. All other estimates are from the Labour Force Survey.

The Survey of Persons Not in the Labour Force was designed to collect information on past and future attachment to the labour market, current non-labour market activities, and the financial resources of persons not in the labour force. In addition, specific questions were asked about the school plans of youths who were neither working nor attending school.

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Chart A

The 1990-92 recession hit youths harder than other recessions since the mid-1970s.



Source: Labour Force Survey, seasonally adjusted quarterly data

* No end date is currently available, and the start date may be revised.

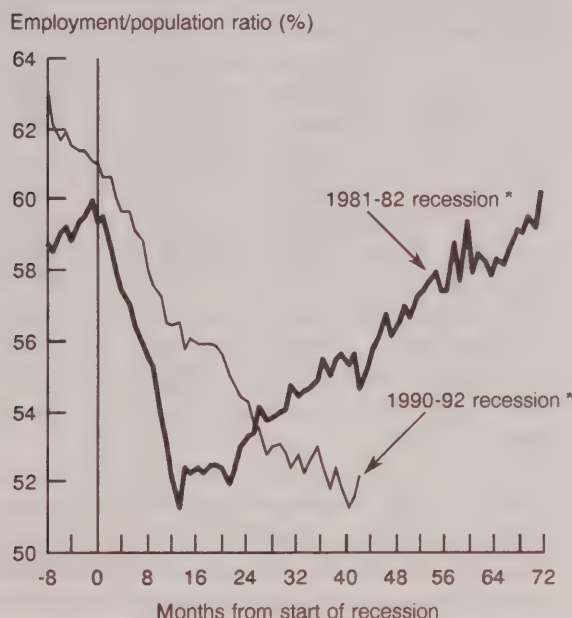
ment growth (up 366,000) since November 1989. With adult women the beneficiaries of this growth, youths' share of service jobs fell from 20% in November 1989 to 17% in November 1993.

Just as recessions typically affect youths more than adults, as new hiring slows and experienced labour is hoarded at the expense of the less skilled or recently employed, recoveries also tend to be more elusive for the young (Chart B). In the 1981-82 recession, the downturn in the employment rate for youths coincided with the beginning of the recession and employment fell sharply for 12 months. Recovery was painfully slow, and not until June 1986, five years after the start of the recession, did the youth employment rate regain its pre-recession level.

"Last hired, first fired" describes the early 1980s for youths, and it is even more apropos now. Youths actually started to lose employment eight months before April 1990, the beginning of the latest recession.² Although the decline was less steep this time around, it has lasted much longer. And, if the pattern of the 1980s is repeated, youths will not regain their pre-recession rate of employment for many years to come. In fact, the persistence of poor employment prospects has resulted in a growing pool of young people without any work experience to offer employers, a scenario which may aggravate an already difficult situation. The proportion of youths who have never held a job rose sharply from 10% in November 1989 to 16% in November 1993.

Chart B

In the 1990-92 recession, the decline in youth employment rates began earlier and has lasted longer.



Source: Labour Force Survey, seasonally adjusted data

* 1981-82: 0 = July 1981
1990-92: 0 = April 1990

Since 1989, when labour market conditions began to deteriorate for them, an increasing proportion of youths have given up on looking for a job. What are these young people doing while they "wait it out"?

Many turn to school

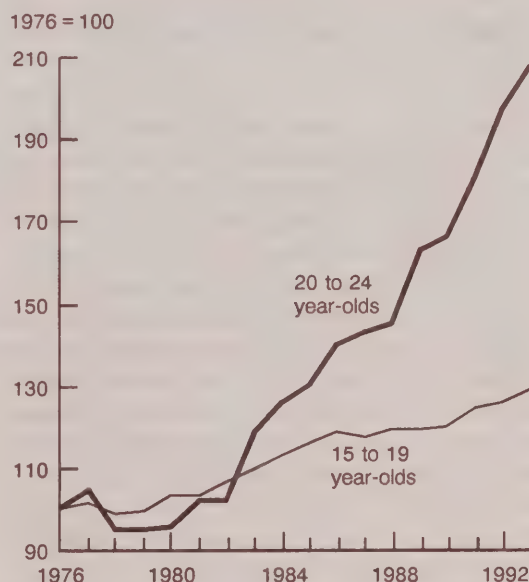
More young people are staying in, or returning to, school. In November 1993, 56% of youths were attending school full time, up from 49% in November 1989. Increased scholastic activity has certainly contributed to the recent reduction in labour force participation – students typically have a far lower rate of labour force participation than non-students.

Part-time school attendance edged up over the last four years, from 3% to 4% of the youth population. Labour force participation tends to be very high among these students, as they are able to juggle both academic and work demands. However, poor labour market conditions have also resulted in lower participation for this group, down from 90% in November 1989 to 85% in November 1993.

Some of the recent surge in school enrolment may result from a lack of alternatives within the labour market. However, there has been a notable, long-term increase in school attendance rates, especially among those aged 20 to 24 seeking postsecondary qualifications (Chart C). This rise appears to be quite independent of employment conditions. Young people may be increasingly

Chart C

Since the 1981-82 recession, the school attendance rate among 20 to 24 year-olds has soared.



Source: Labour Force Survey, September-to-November averages, unadjusted data

November labour force characteristics of youths aged 15 to 24

	1980	1983	Change	1989	1993	Change
Population ('000)	4,555	4,328	-227	3,780	3,733	-48
Full-time students	1,842	1,839	-3	1,867	2,093	226
Part-time students	115	143	29	126	152	26
Non students	2,598	2,346	-253	1,788	1,487	-300
Participation rate (%)	64.6	63.2	-1.4	66.8	60.3	-6.5
Full-time students	33.8	34.7	0.9	45.7	40.6	-5.1
Part-time students	88.5	87.1	-1.4	89.8	85.1	-4.7
Non students	85.4	84.0	-1.4	87.3	85.6	-1.7
Employment rate (%)	56.8	51.7	-5.1	59.2	49.8	-9.4
Full-time students	30.7	30.3	-0.4	41.3	33.7	-7.6
Part-time students	80.7	71.3	-9.3	83.7	71.1	-12.6
Non students	74.3	67.4	-7.0	76.1	70.2	-5.9
Unemployment rate (%)	12.0	18.1	6.1	11.4	17.5	6.1
Full-time students	9.3	12.8	3.5	9.6	16.9	7.3
Part-time students	8.8	18.1	9.3	6.8	16.5	9.7
Non students	12.9	19.8	6.9	12.7	18.0	5.3

Source: Labour Force Survey, November

aware that higher levels of education are associated with a lower likelihood of unemployment.

Outside both school and the labour force

Not all youths have the opportunity or the interest to stay in school, even if the immediate employment situation is dim and long-term career prospects are greatly improved by higher academic credentials. In November 1980, 8% of Canada's youths were neither attending school nor participating in the labour force, and by 1983 the percentage had risen slightly to 9%. Accelerating school enrolment rates and improved employment conditions brought the percentage down to 6% by 1989. But by November 1992, despite three years of continued growth in school attendance, 6% of 15 to 24 year-olds were still outside both school and the labour force.

Child-care responsibilities

Almost half of the 191,000 non-students outside the labour force in November 1992 were young women with children, most of

whom cited child-care responsibilities as their main reason for not currently seeking employment. Half of these young mothers were living with a spouse, one in three were lone parents, and the rest lived, along with their children, with parents or other relatives.

The financial resources of the majority of women with young children were extremely limited. In 1992, over two-thirds lived on a total family income of less than \$20,000 (before taxes). While almost all lone mothers had total family incomes below \$20,000, so did half of those living with a spouse or other relative. The most common source of income was social security, received by almost all lone mothers and well over a third of those living with a spouse or other relative.

In addition to extremely restricted finances in the short-run, the long-term prospects of many of these young mothers may be little better since almost two-thirds had not completed high school. For non-completers, future entrance into the labour market will likely be difficult and job opportunities considerably limited.

The others ...

The remaining youths outside school and the labour force, equally split between men and childless women, also tended to have lower academic credentials. Just over half had not graduated from high school, while only one in five employed non-student youths and two in five unemployed non-students had less than a high school education.

Reasons for not currently looking for work differed for male and female non-students. Males were likely to be hoping to return to, or to start, a job in the near future (29%) or to believe that job search was futile in that no suitable jobs were available (23%). Among female non-students, illness (22%) and personal or family responsibilities (excluding care of own children) (22%) were more common reasons for not looking.

Fewer than one in seven of these young people lived alone or with non-family members. Almost two-thirds of the young men lived with their parents while only one-third of their female counterparts did so. About 40% of the young women lived with a spouse.

These youths had three main sources of financial support. Among those who responded to the question, more than a third received social assistance, over a third were supported by spouses or other family members, and a quarter received either Worker's Compensation or Unemployment Insurance. While they tended to be in a better financial situation than young mothers outside the labour force, almost half of those who reported their total family income for 1992 said it was less than \$20,000.

School and work plans

Just over half of non-student youths outside the labour force intended to further their education. Among those aged 15 to 19, six in ten planned to return to school, with the likelihood of such plans decreasing the longer they had been away from school. Half the 20 to 24 year-olds planned to return, and

again, school plans were most common among those most recently out of school.

More than three-quarters of youths outside school and the labour force had past work experience: 85% of the men and 74% of the women, and they were twice as likely to have future work plans as those who had never worked. Men were also more likely than women to be planning to enter the work force – 71% versus 55%. Returning to school did not hamper the search for work; in fact, youths who intended to continue their studies were more likely to plan a job-search than those who did not.

Summary

Recessions tend to be difficult for most people, but their effects can be especially hard and prolonged for the young. For youths able to remain in, or return to, school, the long-term effects may actually be positive – higher credentials qualify them for better jobs in the future. However, in the interim they may have difficulty finding part-time or summer employment. The consequences may be two-fold: these students will tend to lack valuable job exposure when they complete their education, and many will have to borrow heavily to stay in school, emerging later with a significant debt-load.

Overall, the recent recession appears to have been harder on youths than the 1981-82 recession. As poor employment conditions persist, they have lost relatively more employment and have had similar increases in unemployment, even though many more have withdrawn from, or not entered, the labour force.

It is encouraging that the proportion of youths neither in school nor in the labour force has remained stable despite the recession. However, the 191,000 young people in this situation in November 1992 (72% of whom were women) tended to have low academic credentials. Hence, their entry into the labour market is likely to be difficult and they may face extremely limited prospects. □

Notes

¹ Between 1946 and 1965, the proportion of youths participating in the labour force fell by nine percentage points, from 57.3 to 48.1. However, this downward trend was not the result of recession, but rather of profound changes in Canadian society that encouraged the continued education of teenagers. Schooling became

more possible and necessary as the country moved quickly away from its agrarian roots.

² This date may be revised when GDP estimates for 1990 are finalized.

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FAMILY FACTS

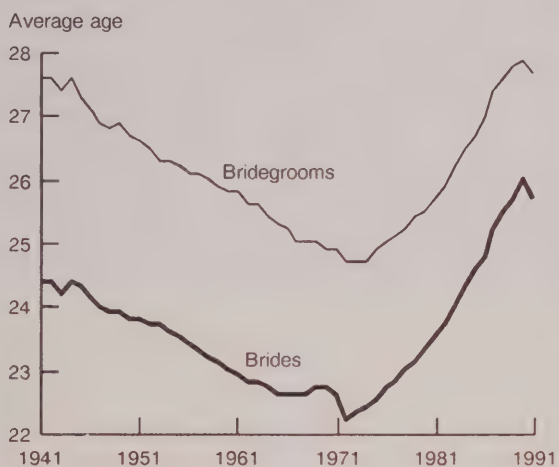
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PERSPECTIVES

ON LABOUR AND INCOME

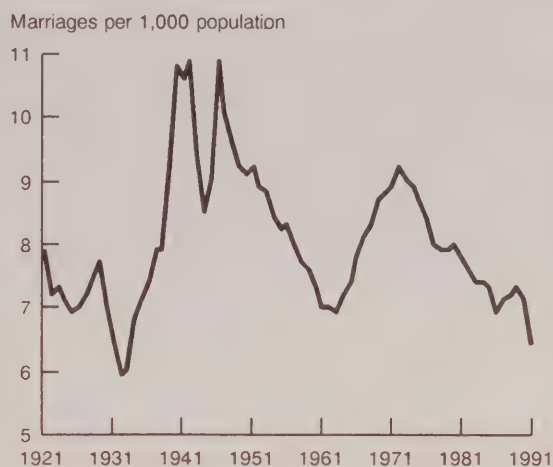
The information on these two pages comes from a variety of sources and represents just a small portion of Statistics Canada's data on families.

In 1990, the average age at first marriage reached a 50-year high.



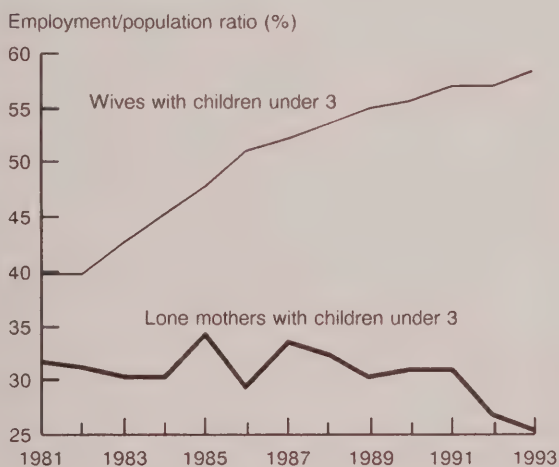
Source: Canadian Centre for Health Information

After rising through the 1960s, the marriage rate has declined over the last 20 years.



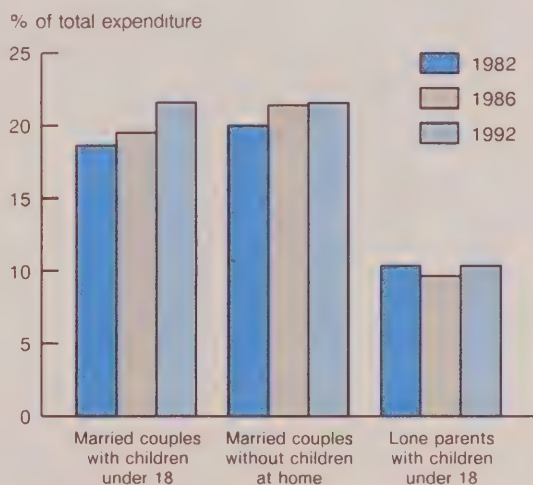
Source: Canadian Centre for Health Information

Since 1982, the employment rate of wives with young children has been rising steadily.



Source: Labour Force Survey

Personal taxes are consuming a larger share of the expenditures of married couples.



Source: Family Expenditure Survey

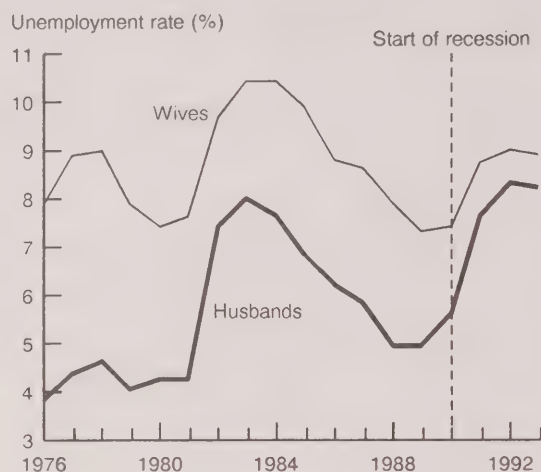


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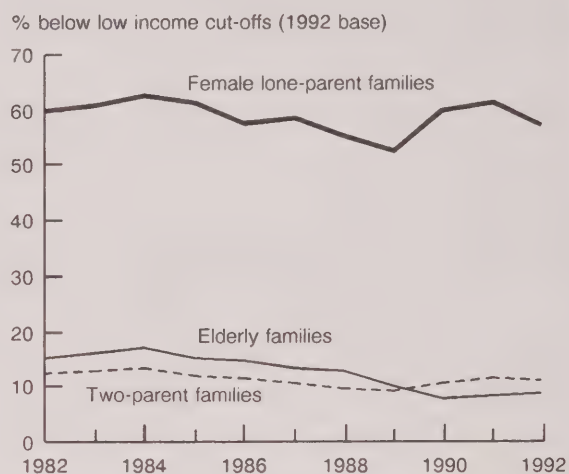
FAMILY FACTS (concluded)

The recent recession affected husbands more than wives.



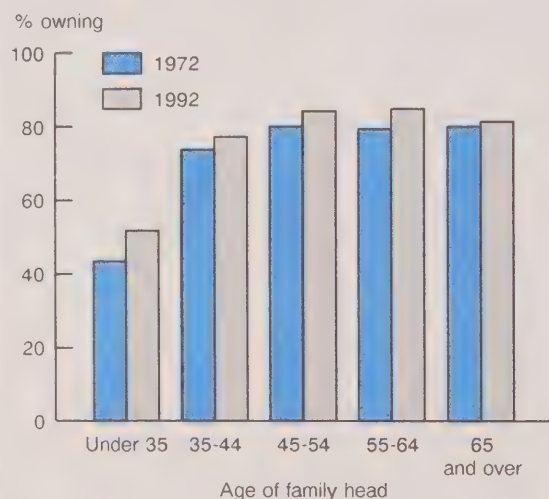
Source: Labour Force Survey

The incidence of low income among female lone-parent families remains high.



Source: Survey of Consumer Finances

Over the last two decades, home ownership has increased for all age groups.



Source: Household Facilities and Equipment Survey

Concepts and definitions

Employment/population ratio: the employed in a group as a percentage of the population in that group.

Personal taxes: mainly federal and provincial income taxes.

Married couples/lone parents: both spouses and lone parents younger than 65.

Low income cut-offs: a family is below a low income cut-off if the proportion of its income spent on food, shelter and clothing is more than 20 percentage points above the proportion spent by the average family in a given area.

Elderly families: both spouses 65 or older.

More information is available in the following Statistics Canada publications: *Selected Marriage Statistics, 1921-1990*, Catalogue 82-552; *The Labour Force*, Catalogue 71-001; *Family Expenditure in Canada*, Catalogue 62-555; *Income Distributions by Size in Canada*, Catalogue 13-207; and *Household Facilities by Income and Other Characteristics*, Catalogue 13-218.



1994 International Year of the Family



PERSPECTIVES

ON LABOUR AND INCOME

Supplement

Catalogue 75-001E

Spring 1994

The labour market: Year-end review

H I G H L I G H T S

- While the Canadian economy performed better in 1993 than it did the previous year, only 43% of the employment losses incurred in 1991 and 1992 were recovered; the unemployment rate improved marginally from 1992.
- Not only were youths (15 to 24 year-olds) the big losers in the recent recession, but in 1993 their employment level continued to drop by a further 47,000. On the other hand, the employment level for adults (aged 25 and over) in 1993 surpassed its 1990 peak by about 123,000.
- Nearly 60% of the total growth in employment in 1993 consisted of part-time work and almost three-quarters of these 85,000 additional part-time workers were adults.
- After three consecutive years of substantial declines, employment losses in the goods-producing industries slowed down in 1993.
- The service-producing industries experienced much higher employment growth (148,000) in 1993 than in 1992, with the bulk going to the community, business and personal services industry.
- Despite some growth in employment, the number of unemployed remained high in 1993 (1.6 million). Neither youths nor adults saw their unemployment rate change significantly in 1993: it stalled at 17.7% for youths, edged down to 10.1% for adult men and rose marginally to 9.6% for adult women.
- Employment rose in most provinces in 1993, the largest increase (2.9%) being recorded in British Columbia. Newfoundland and Nova Scotia were the only two provinces experiencing employment declines, while Saskatchewan remained at the same level.

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The labour market: Year-end review

Cécile Dumas

Overall, the Canadian economy performed better in 1993 than it did in 1992. Growth in the real gross domestic product (GDP) confirmed signs of recovery already observed in 1992 (Chart A). This improvement was driven by a sustained increase in exports – up 31% from January 1992 to October 1993. While trade with the United States continued to provide most of the growth, exports to the European Community and other OECD countries also increased between July and October 1993.

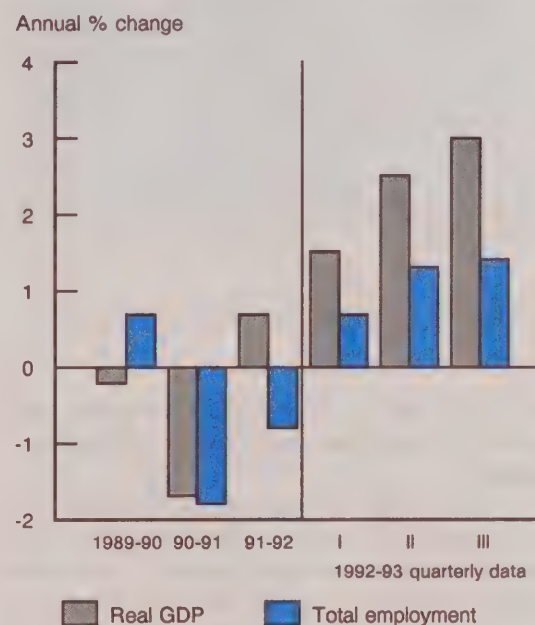
This notable performance in the exports of goods and services likely resulted from many factors. Among these were the depreciation of the Canadian dollar and the higher demand in the United States stimulated by a strong economic performance.

On the domestic front, however, despite low inflation and interest rates, consumer confidence and spending remained rather weak. Not only did the unemployment rate stay high in 1993, but there was also little improvement in employment earnings as pay cheque increases barely covered inflation (Chart B). Growth in personal expenditures on goods and services in real terms was only marginally higher during the first three quarters of 1993 than it was in 1992. In the meantime, personal savings remained high at around 11%, unchanged from the same period in 1992.

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Chart A

Employment growth lagged behind GDP performance in 1993.

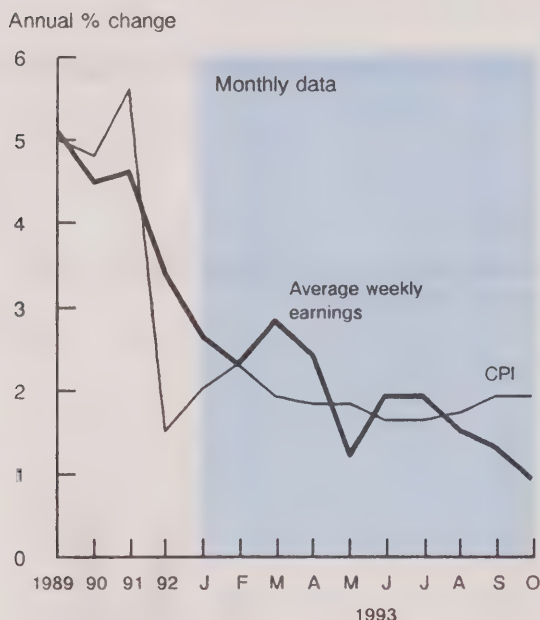


Sources: Labour Force Survey, and National Accounts and Environment Division

In the business sector, on the other hand, investment spending grew significantly during the first three quarters of 1993. Purchases of machinery and equipment, accounting for about 60% of total plant and equipment expenditures, increased by

Chart B

While consumer prices stabilized last year, earnings growth continued to fall.



Sources: Labour Division and Consumer Price Index

4%. This rise in investment mirrored increases in corporate profits during the same period.

The GDP growth rate in 1993 was accompanied by a proportionately smaller rate of increase in employment, a rate not sufficient to recoup all the job losses of

This article is based on information available as of January 7th, 1994. Unless otherwise stated, all monthly data have been seasonally adjusted to provide a better picture of underlying trends. Seasonal movements are those caused by regular annual events such as climate, holidays, vacation periods, and cycles related to crops and production. Seasonally adjusted series still contain irregular and longer-term cyclical fluctuations.

preceding years. Only 43% of the employment lost in 1991 and 1992 was recovered in 1993, while the unemployment rate averaged 11.2%, little different from the 1992 figure of 11.3%.

Employment

Employment growth during 1993 was uneven. Over three-quarters of the 143,000 increase occurred during the first half of the year. In terms of employment levels, 12.5 million people were employed at the end of 1993, an estimate 275,000 higher than the employment trough of April 1992.

Goods-producing sector

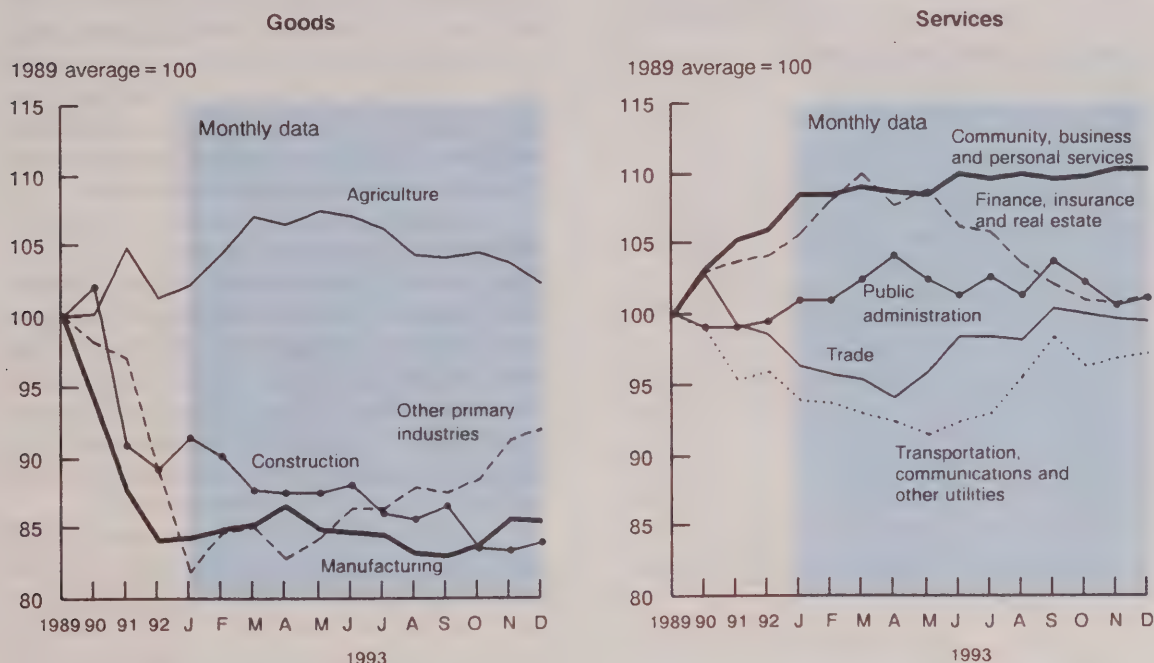
The decline in employment in the goods-producing industries slowed down in 1993, after three consecutive years of substantial losses (well over 100,000 annually) (Chart C).

Employment growth in this sector may have been restrained by the return to regular hours in some industries and the rise of overtime hours in others. Some employers had in fact reduced the number of hours worked (through job sharing programs or other similar actions) during the recession. Thus, the slight increase in average weekly (actual) hours worked in 1993, compared with the two preceding years (mainly in manufacturing) might have helped employers meet higher demand without incurring hiring costs (Chart D).

Manufacturing industries fared better in the first quarter of 1993 than they did in 1992. However, this promising upturn was not sustained over the rest of the year: employment started to decline in May and continued through the summer months, resumed growth in October and November, and dropped once again in December. As a result, annual average employment in this key industry rose by less than 1% (or 12,000) to 1.8 million in 1993.

Chart C

Since 1989, service industries have fared better in terms of employment than most goods-producing industries.



Source: Labour Force Survey

The oscillating movement in manufacturing employment throughout 1993 reflected similar variations in shipments. Although during the first 10 months of the year these shipments were an estimated 9% above the corresponding figure for 1992, their rate of increase fluctuated throughout that period: it slowed during the early part of 1993, then began to accelerate in June, as shipments rose in export-oriented industries, notably, motor vehicles, motor vehicle parts and accessories, wood, and primary metals.

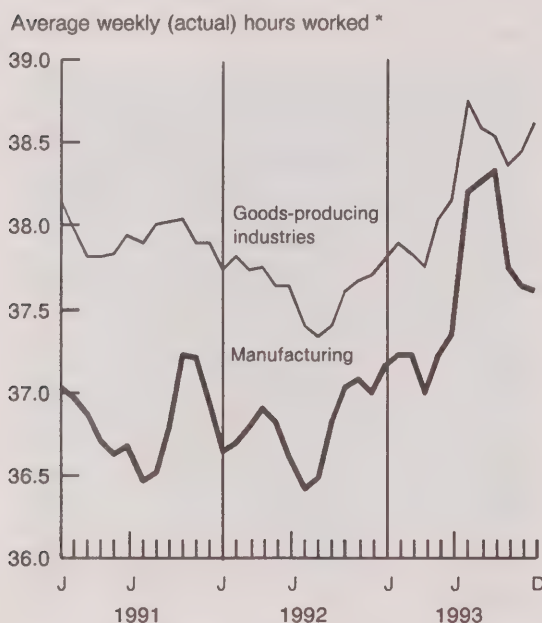
Despite low mortgage rates, the construction industry had another difficult year. The seasonally adjusted value of both residential and non-residential building permits dropped (-6.4% and -3.1%, respectively) during the first 10 months of 1993 from the same period in 1992. Similarly, housing

starts were low early in the year but increased marginally during the third quarter and climbed further in October, reaching an annualized figure of 166,000 units. Employment in this industry continued to decline, losing another 21,000 workers in 1993. Total employment loss has amounted to 118,000, a 15% drop from the employment peak of 780,000 reached in 1990.

Employment in agriculture registered gains in 1993 (up 16,000). Other primary industries (forestry, fishing and trapping, and mining) performed relatively well throughout the year, with forestry leading the pack (unadjusted data); nevertheless, annual average employment in these industries declined by 6,000 for a total loss of 37,000 since 1989.

Chart D

Higher demand for manufacturing goods may have resulted in more hours worked in 1993.



Source: Labour Force Survey
* Three-month moving averages

Service-producing sector

The service industries experienced much higher employment growth (148,000) in 1993 than in 1992, with the bulk going to the community, business and personal services industry.

In this industry, which accounts for half of service sector workers, employment grew by a strong 3.3% (or 144,000) in 1993. Over 50% of this growth occurred in the "other services" component.¹ Employment in non-commercial services (that is, education, health and social services) continued to grow in 1993 (1.8% or 37,000) as it has over the last few years. The other components such as business services, and accommodation, food and beverage services saw employment gains in 1993 (21,000 and 12,000, respectively).

Public administration gained some 21,000 in 1993. Finance, insurance and real estate registered small employment increases (5,000), mostly during the early part of the year. Employment in trade fell 17,000 last year, reflecting a drop in retail trade (-23,000) and a slight improvement in wholesale trade. As a group, transportation, communications and other utilities also suffered declines (-12,000), though the communications component registered some gains.

Employment/population ratio

The overall employment rate (employment/population ratio) maintained its downward trend which began in 1990, by falling from 58.1% in 1992 to 57.9% in 1993. This ongoing decline illustrates that the Canadian working-age population has been growing faster than employment, a phenomenon that worsened during the recession years.

From 1989 to 1993, the employment rate of youths (15 to 24 year-olds) recorded the most dramatic drop as it fell 10 percentage points (from 62.3% to 52.1%). The rate for adult men declined five percentage points (to 67.5%) between 1989 and 1992 and remained unchanged in 1993. The situation for adult women was quite different, however. Their employment rate dropped by less than one percentage point in 1991 (to 51.8%), declined again in 1992 (to 51.2%) and rose slightly to 51.3% in 1993.

Youth employment ... not improving

Young persons were the big losers in the recent recession. They have been losing ground since the last two years of the expansionary period (1988 and 1989) when their employment level was a high 2.4 million. By 1993, it had dropped to 1.9 million, 47,000 less than it was in 1992. The decline in employment levels among youths can be attributed to two main factors: their numbers are down, reflecting the aging of

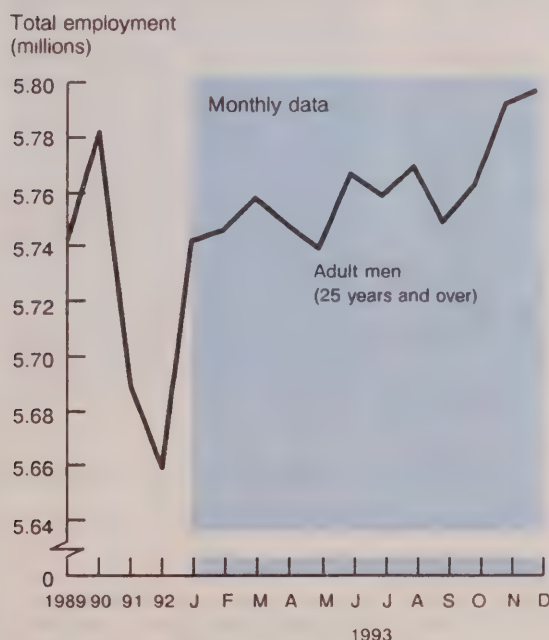
the "baby boom" generation; and a larger proportion are staying longer in, or returning to, school - either to get more education, thereby increasing their employment chances or simply to wait for improved labour market conditions. For many youths, jobs have proven difficult and sometimes impossible to find and some of those out-of-school opt to stay out of the labour force entirely (see Sunter in this issue).

Adult workers ... faring better

In 1993, the employment level for adults (aged 25 and over) surpassed its 1990 peak by about 123,000. For men, after two consecutive yearly drops, employment grew by 2% in 1993 (100,000) (Chart E) to regain its pre-recession level of 5.8 million. Their female counterparts have experienced small (in

Chart E

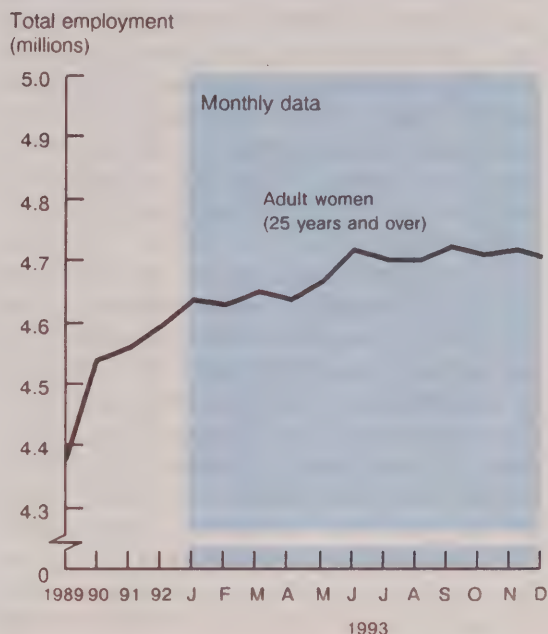
During 1993, employment among adult men barely returned to its pre-recession level ...



Source: Labour Force Survey

Chart F

... while that of women continued its rising trend.



Source: Labour Force Survey

absolute numbers) but sustained growth from 1990 onwards (Chart F). Women's 1993 employment growth rate (2% or 90,000) was similar to that of men, and the number of employed women reached 4.7 million.

But what types of jobs?

Nearly 60% of the overall employment growth in 1993 was accounted for by part-time workers; almost three-quarters of these 85,000 additional persons were adults. Although the majority of part-timers want to work part time (that is, less than 30 hours a week), this is not the case for a growing number of adult part-timers. The number of adults who had to work part time because they could not find full-time jobs continued to increase in 1993.

While the average number of adult men working full time in 1993 was still 97,000 short of its 1990 peak (5.6 million), the number of those working part time jumped from 195,000 to 270,000 over the same period (an increase of 38%) (Chart G). Although adult male part-timers represent a small share of the total adult working population, a large proportion (55%) of these part-time workers would have preferred a full-time job in 1993. (This percentage was 51% in 1992.)

Adult women experienced a different situation. Despite the recession, their full-time employment levels continued to grow (except for a small drop in 1991), increasing by 202,000 since 1989 (Chart G). Their part-time employment also increased steadily to reach slightly over 1.0 million in 1993. As was the case for men, the proportion of those working part time involuntarily rose in 1993 (37% compared with 33% in 1992). However, the actual number of women in this situation is more than 2.5 times that of men (381,000 women in 1993).

Another notable feature of the employment situation in 1993 was the marked increase in self-employment. Nearly three-quarters of the overall employment growth was accounted for by the self-employed (incorporated and unincorporated businesses). These people were all adult workers.

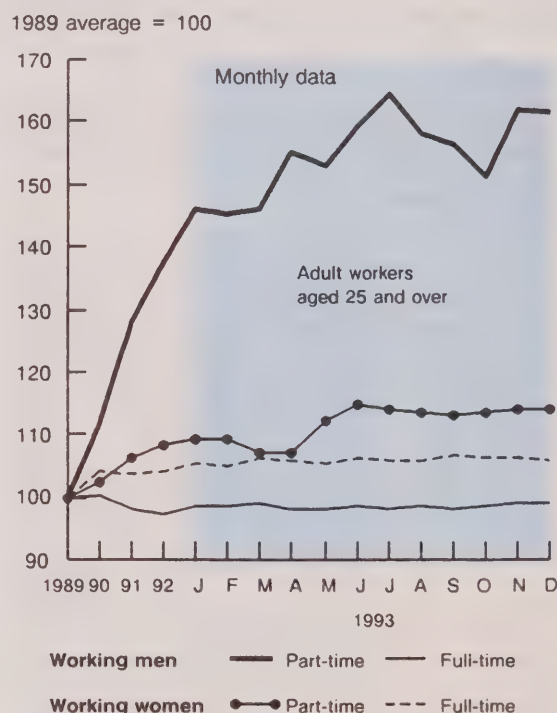
Unemployment

Despite some growth in employment, the number of unemployed remained high (1.6 million in 1993). Of these, 41% were adult men, 32% adult women, and 27% youths. The phenomenon of high unemployment during an economic recovery is not new. Many individuals who are not looking for work during a recession, because they believe that they cannot find suitable jobs, resume their job search at the first concrete signs of an upturn. As a result, one would expect higher

participation in the labour market causing both the unemployment rate and the participation rate to increase. However, the unemployment rate remained at 11.2% last year and the participation rate even declined (from 65.5% in 1992 to 65.2% in 1993) reflecting a volatile labour market situation which prevailed throughout 1993. Neither youths nor adults saw their unemployment rate change significantly in 1993: it stalled at 17.7% for youths, edged down to 10.1% for adult men, and rose marginally to 9.6% for adult women.

Chart G

Part-time employment among adult workers has been rising since 1989.



Source: Labour Force Survey

Note: Adult men working part time accounted for 5% of all employed men aged 25 and over in 1993; the corresponding figure for women was 22%.

Long-term unemployment still on the rise

The number of unemployed looking for work for longer than a year increased throughout 1993. By mid-year, there were 207,000 (unadjusted data), and their annual average reached 215,000. Long-term unemployment accounted for 13.8% of all unemployment last year, a proportion higher than in 1992 (11.1%).

If the recovery period after the 1981-82 recession is any indication, long-term unemployment may prevail for some time. Although, in that recession, the unemployment peaked in December 1982, long-term unemployment did not start to decline until 1985, a full two years after the start of the recovery in 1983.

The vast majority (87%) of the 215,000 long-term unemployed in 1993 were 25 years and over. More than half (54%) were 25 to 44,

while one-third were 45 and over. In 1992, these proportions were 57% and 29% respectively.

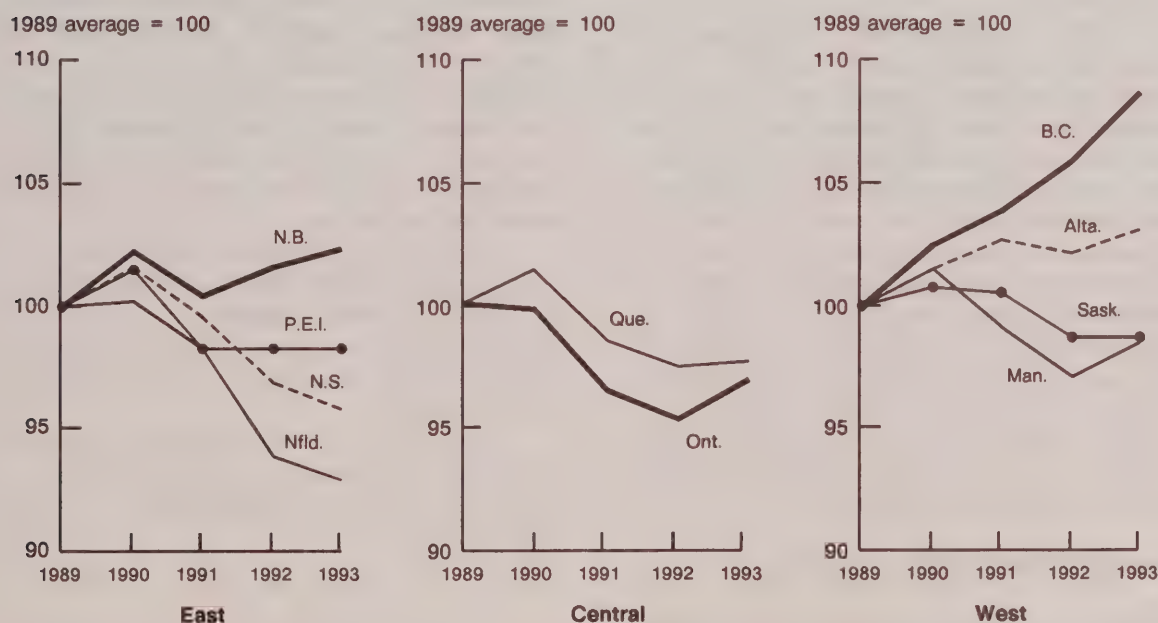
Employment across the country

Nationally, employment grew by 1.2% in 1993, but a glance at the provincial distribution shows different growth rates for different areas (Chart H).

Newfoundland and Nova Scotia were the only two provinces experiencing employment declines – albeit small ones – in 1993. Both provinces suffered from the depletion of their fishing stocks and the cod moratorium, which affected employment in the food and beverage manufacturing industry. Employment in Prince Edward Island increased slightly while New Brunswick posted a small growth for the second consecutive year.

Chart H

Only three provinces increased their employment levels between 1989 and 1993.



Source: Labour Force Survey

In Quebec, employment barely increased in 1993, with a modest addition of 6,000 workers. During the recession, the manufacturing sector in this province scaled back its activity, resulting in an employment drop of 18% between 1989 and 1992. By 1993, the situation took a turn for the better as employment increased by 5,000 in this sector. Ontario's employment regained strength with an increase of 79,000 in 1993 (1.7%), mainly in the service-producing industries. Canada's most populous province suffered the most in terms of total job losses (-235,000) between 1989 and 1992; 80% of these losses were in manufacturing where a further slight drop of 4,000 occurred in 1993.

Manitoba recovered over two-thirds of 1992's loss with an increase of 6,000 while Saskatchewan remained at the same level in 1993. Alberta suffered less than the eastern provinces: employment fell only in 1992 (-6,000) and recovered double that number in 1993. This relatively good performance was due mostly to employment growth in community, business and personal services, and trade industries.

The largest annual percentage increase in employment (2.9%) in 1993 – well above the national growth rate – was recorded by British Columbia. In fact, this province barely felt the recession, with average annual additions of roughly 32,000 new workers since 1989. The province's good performance has attracted many people: over 35,000 international immigrants in 1992 and nearly 40,000 (preliminary data) in 1993, as well as 41,000 Canadians from other parts of the country in 1992 and 30,000 over the first nine months of 1993. This population increase probably helped to stimulate employment in the construction industry, which grew by 9% between 1989 and 1993.

On the international scene

Of the G-7 countries, Canada registered the second best economic performance (after the

United States) in the first half of 1993 compared with the same period in 1992. Based on available statistics, growth in real GDP was strongest in the United States (3.1%) followed by Canada (2%) and the United Kingdom (1.7%). All other industrialized countries reported declines: Japan and Italy (less than -1% each), France (-1%) and Germany (-2.5%).

Similarly, on the labour market scene, only Canada and the United States registered some overall employment growth in 1993 (1.2% and 1.5%, respectively). Preliminary data show that in Japan, employment barely changed and in each of the other countries, it fell.² The unemployment rate dropped marginally in Canada (from 11.3% to 11.2%), declined in the United States (from 7.4% to 6.8%) and increased in the remaining G-7 countries.

Summary

Real GDP growth in 1993 was mostly driven by higher exports. Domestically, consumer confidence and spending remained weak as labour market conditions showed uneven signs of improvement. Employment was volatile with an overall growth of 1.2% and the unemployment rate decreased only marginally to 11.2% in 1993. Most of the employment growth was recorded in service-producing industries.

Youths aged 15 to 24 suffered another employment decline last year while adult workers more than recovered their losses of the recession years. However, an important share of adults' employment growth was in part-time work.

In terms of employment growth among the G-7 countries, Canada's performance in 1993 was outdone only by the United States. □

Notes

¹ "Other services" include amusement and recreation services, personal and household services, membership organizations, and other services.

² Labour market data (preliminary annual averages) were provided by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

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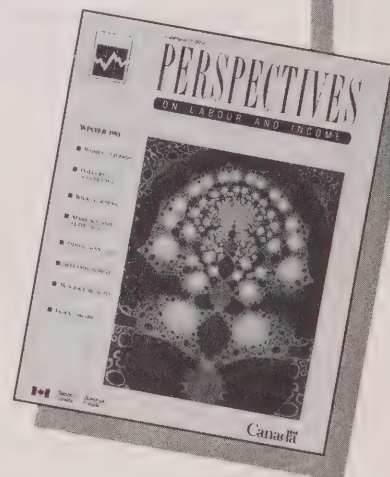
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RRSP withdrawals

Hubert Frenken and Linda Standish

In 1991, some 604,000 Canadians under 65 years of age cashed in a total of almost \$3.2 billion of their RRSP savings. The average amount they withdrew was \$5,270: \$5,700 for men and just over \$4,700 for women. Since total 1991 contributions to RRSPs were \$14.6 billion, it would appear that for every \$5 contributed that year, nearly \$1 was withdrawn by persons who were under what is traditionally regarded as the normal retirement age.¹

The number of individuals under 65 reporting RRSP withdrawals on their 1991 tax returns increased 22% from 1990, and the total amount withdrawn rose by more than 27%. Who were these people making pre-retirement withdrawals from their RRSP savings?

Both men and women withdrew

In 1991, 44% of those cashing in RRSPs before retirement age were women and 56% men. Their respective shares of total withdrawals were 39% and 61%. The proportions for women seem high when compared with their share of past contributions. Although the rate of growth in the number of women

contributing to RRSPs has outstripped that of men by a wide margin in the last decade, their contributions were still only 34% of the total in 1991 (Frenken and Maser, 1993).

RRSP withdrawals in 1991 by persons under 65

	Number of persons	Amount withdrawn	
		Total	Average
	'000	\$ millions	\$
Canada	604	3,182	5,270
Newfoundland	8	35	4,440
Prince Edward Island	2	10	4,550
Nova Scotia	17	79	4,610
New Brunswick	13	59	4,670
Quebec	117	623	5,340
Ontario	249	1,402	5,640
Manitoba	23	105	4,620
Saskatchewan	21	100	4,680
Alberta	64	306	4,750
British Columbia	89	457	5,150
Yukon/NWT	1	6	4,710

Source: Small Area and Administrative Data Division

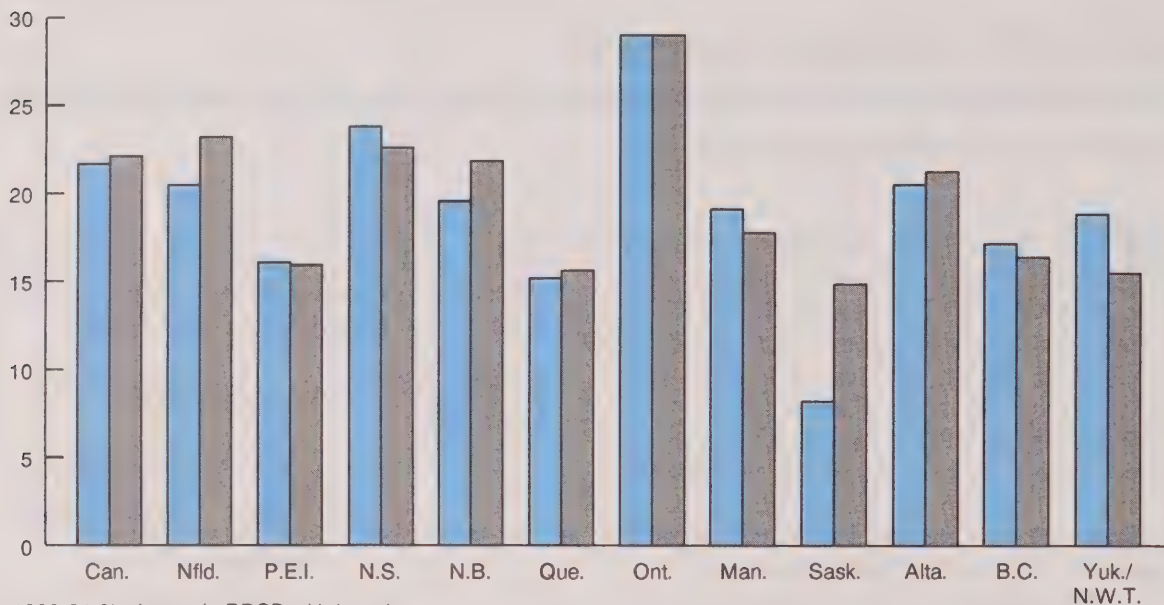
Ontario leads in withdrawals

The highest 1991 average withdrawal by individuals under 65 was in Ontario (\$5,640) followed by Quebec (\$5,340) (Table). Ontario also had the largest rate of increase from 1990 to 1991 in both the number of persons making withdrawals (29%) and the amounts withdrawn (35%) (Chart). Excluding Ontario, the number of RRSP recipients in all

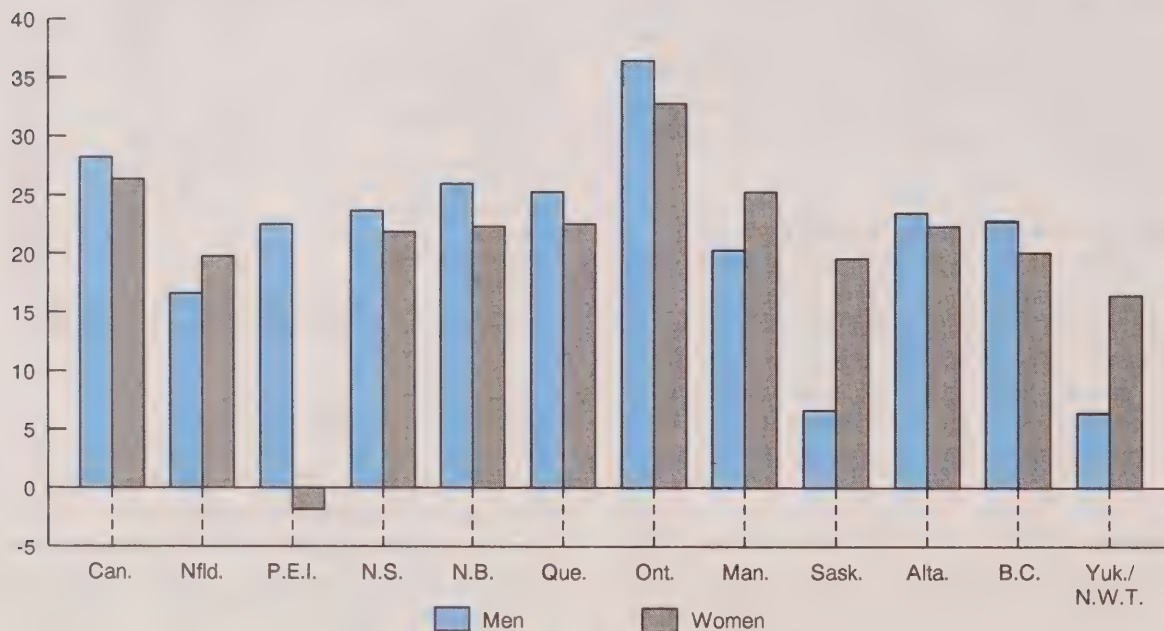
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Ontario had the largest rate of increase in both the number of persons cashing in RRSPs and the total amount withdrawn.

1990-91 % change in RRSP recipients



1990-91 % change in RRSP withdrawals



Source: Small Area and Administrative Data Division

other areas increased by 17%, ranging from 11% in Saskatchewan to 23% in Nova Scotia. The large rise in the number of Ontarians making RRSP withdrawals may be associated with the dramatic drop in employment in the province in 1991.²

Data source

The data in this note are drawn from the T1 tax file and include all amounts reported as RRSP income by taxfilers under 65 years of age. A small portion of this income was obtained in the form of annuity payments. However, in 1990, 97% of taxfilers under 65 received their RRSP income as cash withdrawals (Frenken, 1992). For further information, contact the Small Area and Administrative Data Division, Statistics Canada, 14th Floor, R.H. Coats Building, Tunney's Pasture, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6; telephone (613) 951-9720.

Not just for early retirement

No doubt, some individuals cashing in their RRSPs had retired early from the labour force. In fact, one in four persons under 65 drawing on their RRSP savings in 1991 were between 55 and 64, and they withdrew one-third of the \$3.2 billion. However, a striking 55% were under the age of 45, and they withdrew 42% of the total. In their case, retirement was clearly not a reason for cashing in RRSPs.

A study of the income sources of taxfilers who drew on their RRSP savings in 1991 shows that nearly one in five received neither employment income (from paid work or self-employment) nor Unemployment Insurance (UI) benefits during the year. To

have accumulated RRSP holdings, these individuals were likely employed in the recent past, since only persons with earned income – nearly always from employment for those under 65 – were permitted to contribute.

Compared with 16% of men, 24% of women under 65 who withdrew RRSP savings had neither employment nor UI income. The proportions were highest in Quebec, where 22% of men and nearly 33% of women did not report such income on their 1991 tax returns.

Also, for every \$100 in employment and UI income received by RRSP beneficiaries under 65 in 1991, an additional \$25 was withdrawn, on average, from their RRSPs. Women seemed to have a greater dependence on RRSP income than men: \$30 versus \$23, respectively.³

Summary

More and more Canadians with RRSP savings are dipping into these funds before the normal retirement age. From 1990 to 1991, the number of persons under 65 years of age making these withdrawals increased 22% and the amount they withdrew grew 27%. Ontario, which experienced extensive job losses in 1991, had not only the largest increase in the number of persons making withdrawals, but also the highest average withdrawal. While some individuals may have drawn on their RRSP savings before age 65 because of retirement, more than half of those making withdrawals were under 45 and likely not ready for early retirement. □

Notes

¹ Monies withdrawn by taxfilers taking advantage of the Home Buyers' Plan are not relevant here. This program came into effect only in March 1992; furthermore, these amounts need not be reported as RRSP income when withdrawn.

² For information on job losses in Ontario, see Cross (1993).

³ Under certain circumstances, withdrawals from spousal RRSPs must be reported by the spouse who contributed into these RRSPs. Almost all spousal contributions are made by husbands into their wives' RRSPs, and often withdrawals made by these wives will appear on the husbands' returns. Furthermore, decisions in respect of both contributions and withdrawals may be dependent on family income. However, the data file used in this article provides the income of individual taxfilers only.

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Perceptions of workplace hazards¹

J. Paul Grayson

Some jobs are dangerous, and those dangers are evident. Machinery in steel plants, blowtorches on construction sites, and guns in law enforcement all present obvious physical hazards to the people who work with them.

On the other hand, many occupations pose less apparent risks, and the effects of exposure may not be immediate. To determine the prevalence of such risks, which in some cases have been related to health problems, the 1991 General Social Survey asked individuals if, over the past 12 months, their jobs had exposed them to dust or fibres in the air, computer screens or video display terminals (VDTs), loud noise, poor quality air, or dangerous chemicals or fumes. Respondents were also asked if they believed that this exposure had affected their health (see *Data source*).

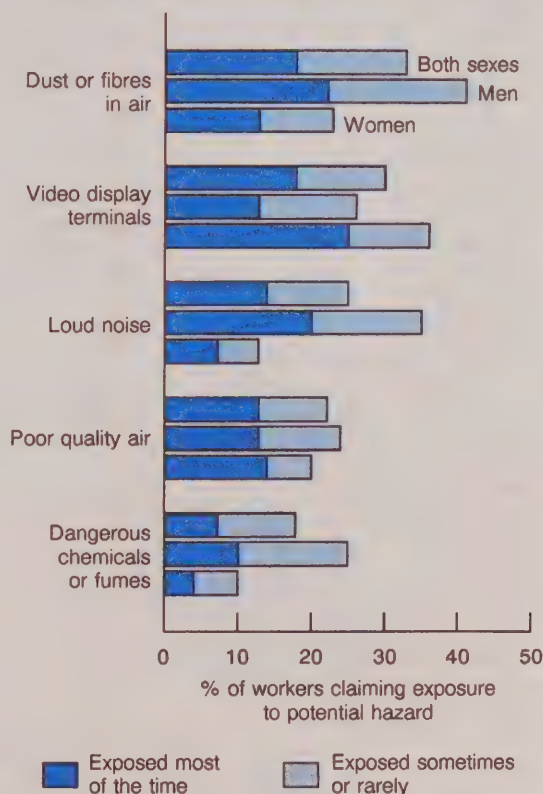
Exposure varies with hazard

In 1991, the extent to which workers² reported exposure to these five potential environmental hazards varied considerably. Dust or fibres in the air was the most pervasive hazard, reported by 4.9 million workers. Exposure to VDTs ranked second, affecting 4.5 million. A total of 3.7 million workers were exposed to loud noise, and 3.2 million reported poor quality air. Dangerous

chemicals and fumes were less common, with 2.7 million workers reporting exposure (Chart A³).

Chart A

In general, men were more likely than women to claim exposure to potential workplace hazards.



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Source: 1991 General Social Survey

Over half the workers who encountered these potential hazards indicated that they did so most of the time. The single exception was dangerous chemicals or fumes, which were present most of the time for just 39% of the workers exposed to them.

Dust, noise and chemicals

Self-reported exposure to specific potential hazards varies in different occupations (Ta-

ble). Men in blue-collar jobs reported the highest levels of exposure to dust or fibres in the air, loud noise, and dangerous chemicals or fumes. These potential hazards tended to be especially common in construction, primary occupations, and processing, machining or fabricating.

Higher-than-average exposure to dust, noise, and chemicals was also reported by women in the same occupations. However,

Self-reported exposure to potential workplace hazards by sex and occupation, 1991*

	Number of workers	Proportion of workers reporting exposure to				
		Dust or fibres in air	Video display terminals	Loud noise	Poor quality air	Dangerous chemicals or fumes
	'000	%				
All occupations	14,597 **	34	31	26	22	18
Managerial and professional	4,241	24	49	15	25	14
Clerical	2,131	24	61	12	24	8
Sales	1,381	22	28	10	13	11
Service	2,047	27	9	23	16	19
Primary†	781	60	6	45	17	34
Processing, machining and fabricating	1,737	58	14	62	32	34
Construction	858	64	8	52	27	27
Transportation	570	38	9	28	15	25
Material handling	462	52	19	48	25	36
Men	8,194 **	41	27	36	24	25
Managerial and professional	2,157	24	56	18	24	14
Clerical	405	34	44	24	22	17
Sales	717	22	28	14	11	16
Service	882	34	13	31	22	27
Primary†	646	64	6	48	19	38
Processing, machining and fabricating	1,415	62	16	66	36	38
Construction	834	65	8	53	27	28
Transportation	528	38	9	28	15	25
Material handling	396	51	19	50	23	35
Women	6,403 **	24	36	13	20	10
Managerial and professional	2,083	23	42	11	26	13
Clerical	1,726	22	65	9	24	5
Sales	664	21	28	5	15	6
Service	1,165	21	6	16	12	13
Primary†	136	43	--	28	--	--
Processing, machining and fabricating	322	43	--	43	14	14
Construction	24	--	--	--	--	--
Transportation	42	--	--	--	--	--
Material handling	66	58	--	37	--	--

Source: 1991 General Social Survey

* Persons currently employed and those who had a job or were self-employed at any time during the 12 months before the survey.

** Includes "not stated."

† Includes farming, fishing, forestry and mining.

Data source

The information in this article was collected by the 1991 General Social Survey (GSS) on Health. Almost 12,000 persons aged 15 and over were interviewed about their health status and the lifestyle factors that might affect it.

One section of the questionnaire concerned five potential environmental hazards in the workplace: dust or fibres in the air, dangerous chemicals or fumes, loud noise, video display terminals, and poor quality air. Respondents were asked if in the previous 12 months their job had exposed them to any of these conditions and whether the exposure had occurred most of the time, sometimes, or rarely. Those who had encountered these potential hazards were also asked if they felt the exposure had affected their health.

The GSS relies on what respondents report. There was no independent scientific measurement of the presence and extent of the various potential hazards in the respondents' workplaces. Thus, data on the prevalence of potential environmental hazards and the frequency of exposure reflect the respondents' perceptions. For instance, "poor quality air" does not mean the same thing to everyone, and a frequency of exposure that one person would regard as "sometimes" another individual might describe as "most of the time."

The GSS did not ask workers if they had protective devices to shield them from exposure to potential hazards. Thus, although many workers may have reported exposure to a specific condition, it is impossible to know if this was mitigated by the use of protective gear such as breathing apparatus for those working with chemicals, ear protectors for those exposed to loud noise, or shielding panels on VDTs.

because these blue-collar jobs accounted for relatively few female workers, the number of women reporting exposure to these three potential hazards made up only a small percentage of the female workforce.

Video display terminals

Unlike the other potential hazards, VDT exposure was reported more often by women than by men: 36% compared with 27%. This difference reflects women's concentration in occupations where the use of computers is commonplace.

Women in clerical occupations were more likely than any other workers to be exposed to VDTs; in 1991, almost two-thirds of these women reported exposure. The men

most frequently exposed to VDTs worked in managerial or professional jobs, and their rate of exposure to these devices was higher than that of women in similar occupations.

Poor quality air

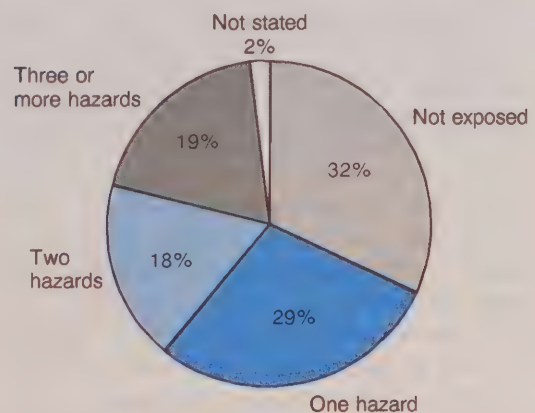
Poor quality air was reported with almost equal frequency by both male and female workers: 24% and 20%, respectively. Poor air was associated with jobs in processing, machining or fabricating, construction, and material handling. However, in an era of sealed office towers, it is not surprising that managerial or professional and clerical workers also frequently reported poor air.

Multiple exposure

A sizeable share of Canadian workers encountered more than one potential environmental hazard on the job. While 29% of workers reported just one hazard, 37% stated that they were exposed to two or more (Chart B).

Chart B

Over a third of workers claimed exposure to at least two potential workplace hazards.



Source: 1991 General Social Survey

The workers who tended to be exposed to individual hazards were also the most likely to report multiple exposure. Men in processing, machining or fabricating jobs faced the greatest potential risks, with 21% reporting exposure to two hazards, 22% to three, and 22% to four or more. The reporting of multiple exposure was also common for men in material handling, construction, and primary occupations.

Female workers reported multiple exposure less often. About a third of women in processing, machining or fabricating occupations encountered more than one potential hazard. However, multiple exposure was reported just as frequently by those in clerical and managerial or professional jobs.

Perception of health effects

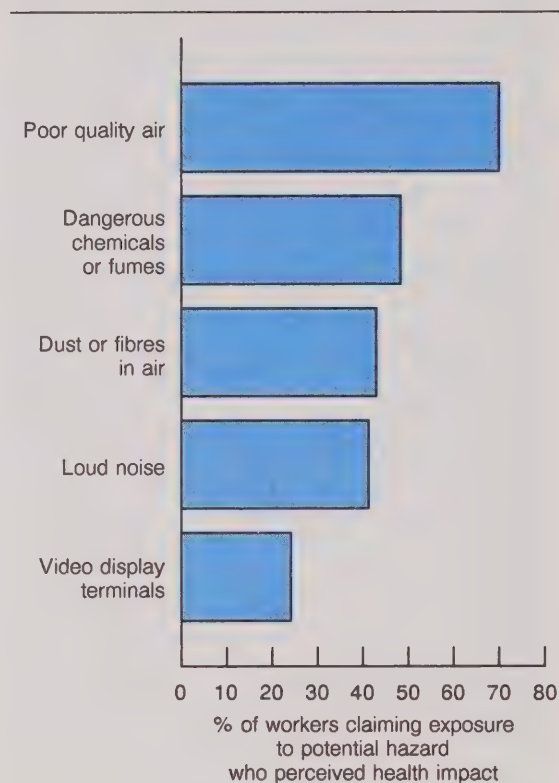
A substantial proportion of Canadians exposed to potential workplace hazards believed that their health had been affected. Perceptions of health effects, however, varied with the hazard (Chart C).

Fully 70% of workers exposed to poor air believed their health had been affected. Dangerous chemicals or fumes were perceived as having an effect by about half the workers exposed to them, while more than 40% of those exposed to dust or fibres or to loud noise considered them to have been harmful. By contrast, only 24% of workers exposed to VDTs believed that this had had an impact on their health.

Perceptions of harm also varied with the extent of exposure. For instance, 52% of workers who were exposed to dust or fibres most of the time claimed that it did have an impact on their health, compared with 36% of those who were exposed just some of the time. The corresponding figures for workers exposed to loud noise were 48% and 35%. Similarly, 33% of workers exposed to VDTs most of the time felt that their health had been affected, whereas the proportion among those exposed less frequently was 13%.

Chart C

Poor quality air in the workplace was widely perceived to affect health.



Source: 1991 General Social Survey

Related health conditions

Research has shown that a number of health conditions may be associated with exposure to poor quality air, dust or fibres, VDTs, loud noise, and chemicals or fumes (see *Potential effects of workplace environmental hazards*). And, in fact, several health problems were reported slightly more often by workers who had been exposed to the various potential hazards than by those who had not encountered these situations.

Potential effects of workplace environmental hazards

Workplace environmental hazards do not inevitably have a negative impact on health. The effects vary with the hazard, level of exposure, and characteristics of the workers who are exposed. However, a number of health conditions have been linked to each of the five potential hazards identified by the 1991 General Social Survey.

Dust or fibres in the air

Dust may contain particles that can be injurious to health. Some particles, such as silica, asbestos, beryllium, and cobalt, may directly affect the lungs. Others may enter the bloodstream and affect the brain, kidneys, and other organs. Diseases that may be related to dust inhalation include asbestosis, silicosis, coal pneumoconiosis, beryllium disease, and siderosis.

Video display terminals (VDTs)

The debate about the potential effects of radiation emissions from video display terminals has yet to be settled. It has been suggested that exposure to ELF (extremely low frequency) and VLF (very low frequency) emissions from VDTs may increase the risk of cancer and miscarriage. However, no definitive studies have proven a connection between monitor emissions and these particular health problems. Nonetheless, some manufacturers offer monitors that meet lower emission standards.

As well, prolonged exposure to computer screens has been associated with vision problems ranging from eyestrain and headaches to blurred vision. The use of computers has also been related to carpal tunnel syndrome and other repetitive stress injuries.

Loud noise

The effects of loud noise depend on how long exposure lasts. Short-term exposure to excessive noise may cause ear pain and temporary deafness. Medium-term exposure may lead to an inability to hear some high tones; eventually, all high tones may be affected. Long-term exposure may also result in an inability to hear low tones and lead to deafness.

Respiratory problems

Reported respiratory problems were associated with exposure to poor quality air and dust or fibres, but not to any great extent.

Workers who said they were exposed to poor quality air most of the time were more likely to report allergies than were those whose work did not involve such exposure.

Emphysema was also reported somewhat more often by workers exposed to poor

Poor quality air

Indoor air may be contaminated by biological or chemical agents. The chemical varieties are usually introduced by cleaning compounds or building and decorating materials. The biological type spreads through heating, ventilation and air-conditioning systems. Fungi, bacteria, dust mites and molds thrive in the dirt and water that collect in poorly maintained ventilation systems and may cause or aggravate allergic reactions.

Office air, in particular, has been identified as a potential hazard, often termed the "sick building syndrome." The energy crisis of the 1970s saw a proliferation of energy-saving airtight buildings in which the rates of air exchange and dilution of contaminants were reduced. Air may be hot and/or humid, excessively dry, or contain insufficient oxygen. And the use of synthetics in building materials and furnishings releases chemicals into indoor air. Fatigue, headaches, dizziness and nausea are among the problems that have been associated with office air.

As well as the direct toxic and irritant effects of poor quality air, exposure may increase susceptibility to diseases from other causes or aggravate existing ailments. It is also possible that workers will be sensitized to the same or other environmental agents. In some cases, a mild sensitivity to one pollutant gradually "spreads" to others. To further complicate the issue, a building-related illness may develop almost immediately or after long-term exposure.

Chemicals or fumes

A number of jobs involve direct contact with dangerous chemicals. These chemicals can be taken into the body through the inhalation of contaminated air, through the skin, and to a lesser extent, through the eyes. The potential effects of exposure include burns, headaches, dizziness and nausea, eye irritation, damage to nerve tissue, and damage to the lungs. However, when the risks are obvious, workers are usually shielded by protective clothing and other safety equipment.

air or dust or fibres. And women exposed to dust or fibres most of the time were almost twice as likely as those not exposed to report asthma (9% versus 5%). For men, there was no difference between the two groups, with 5% of both reporting asthma.

Migraine headaches

A relatively high proportion of workers exposed to poor air reported migraine headaches. In fact, 10% of men and 18% of women regularly exposed to poor air had

migraines, compared with 5% and 13% of those not exposed. For men, frequent exposure to dangerous chemicals or fumes was also associated with migraine headaches: 9% of men exposed to these substances most of the time reported migraines versus 5% of those not exposed.

On the other hand, frequent exposure to loud noise or VDTs seemed to make almost no difference in the prevalence of migraines.

Seeing and hearing

Vision problems were only slightly more common among workers whose jobs involved prolonged exposure to VDTs than among those who did not work with these devices. Half (49%) of women exposed to VDTs most of the time had vision problems, compared with 46% who were not exposed. For men, the figures were 42% and 36%, respectively.

Although hearing problems were relatively rare, the incidence of such difficulties was highest among both men and women whose jobs exposed them to loud noise most of the time. In 1991, 5% of men and 4% of women who were regularly exposed to loud noise at work reported hearing problems, compared with 2% of those who had no such exposure.

More hazards ... more health problems

Health problems tended to increase with the number of potential on-the-job hazards that workers reported. For instance, 37% of women exposed to four hazards reported

allergies, compared with 27% of those exposed to only one hazard. The pattern was the same among men: 21% and 15%, respectively.

Similarly, 16% of women exposed to four hazards had emphysema, whereas this condition affected only 4% of women exposed to one hazard. For men, the association was less pronounced: 5% exposed to four hazards had emphysema, as opposed to 3% of those exposed to one.

Summary

In 1991, substantial proportions of workers reported encountering potential on-the-job environmental hazards. Although the nature and prevalence of the hazards varied in different occupations, exposure tended to be reported most frequently by men in blue-collar jobs. However, some hazards, such as proximity to VDTs, were more common in white-collar office jobs, many of which are held by women.

While not all workers perceived these potential hazards to have affected their health, a number of conditions seemed to be associated with prolonged exposure. □

The author wishes to thank Ed Praught and Jennifer Meester of the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division for their valuable comments and suggestions in reviewing this article.

Notes

¹ This article is based on a chapter in *Work and the Health of Canadians: A Report Based on the General Social Survey, 1991* (Grayson, 1993).

² The population analyzed in this article consists of persons currently employed and those who had a job or were self-employed at any time during the 12 months before the survey.

³ Because workers could be exposed to more than one potential hazard, the percentages exposed to individual hazards add to more than 100.

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What's new?

Just released

Work experience and income of Aboriginal adults below Canadian average

There are 389,000 Aboriginal Peoples in Canada aged 15 and over. For the most part, their labour market experiences are considerably more bleak than those of the average Canadian adult. These are among the findings of the recent publication, *Schooling, Work and Related Activities, Income, Expenses and Mobility: 1991 Aboriginal Peoples Survey*, which portrays a community whose employment and income levels are consistently below Canadian averages.

Developed in close consultation with Aboriginal organizations and government departments, the Aboriginal Peoples Survey was conducted following the 1991 Census of Canada among those Canadians who reported that they were of aboriginal ancestry (North American Indian, Métis, or Inuit) and/or were registered under the Indian Act. The survey collected data on such topics as employment, education, language, tradition, health, lifestyle, mobility, housing, disability, income, and household expenditures.

The survey results show that:

- In 1991, 33% of Aboriginal adults aged 15 to 49 had at least some postsecondary schooling, and 17% had less than grade

9; comparable figures for the general Canadian population in the same age group were just over half with some postsecondary education and 6% with less than grade 9.

- Almost one-quarter of Aboriginal adults aged 15 to 49 (80,700) took on-the-job or classroom training in 1990 and/or 1991.
- 59% of Aboriginal adults worked for income in 1990 and/or 1991. Of these persons, 47% earned less than \$10,000 and only 8% made \$40,000 or more in 1990. In contrast, about 29% of Canada's working-age population reported employment incomes of under \$10,000 while 18% made \$40,000 or more.
- Just over 8% of Aboriginal adults had, at one time, owned or operated a business; well over half of these entrepreneurs (57%) had owned or operated a business in 1991.
- The unemployment rate for Aboriginal adults aged 15 and over was almost 25%, compared with the Canadian average of 10% in 1991.

Educational attainment and incomes are higher, and unemployment rates are lower, for the Métis and North American Indians living off reserve than for those living on reserve and for the Inuit; this suggests that the isolation of Aboriginal communities contributes to their socio-economic hardship. In fact, of the 128,000

adults looking for work, 66% identified lack of jobs in the area as the major barrier to finding employment. Mismatch of jobs to their education or work skills was cited by 41% and insufficient information about the jobs available was identified by 26%. Being an Aboriginal person (16%) and having no one available to look after the children (8%) ranked fourth and fifth on the list of barriers.

Schooling, Work and Related Activities, Income, Expenses and Mobility: 1991 Aboriginal Peoples Survey (Catalogue 89-534) is available for \$60 from Marketing Division, Sales and Service, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6; fax (613) 951-1584. Or call toll free 1 800 267-6677. □

Working mothers biggest change in families over the last decade

Over four in five Canadians live in families, social units that most people believe are changing rapidly. *A Portrait of Families in Canada* reveals an institution that, in the 1990s, is both different and not-so-different from its earlier incarnations in the 1970s and 1980s. Drawing from a number of surveys – including the Census, Labour Force Survey, General Social Survey, Survey of Family Expenditures and Survey of Consumer Finances – the report examines family demographic characteristics, labour force characteristics, income and expenditures, housing, use of time, and domestic violence.

Among the highlights of the publication are:

- In 1991, there were 7.4 million families in Canada; 77% were headed by married couples, another 13% by lone parents, and 10% by couples living common-law.
- In 1992, 64% of married women with children under age 16 were employed, compared with 49% in 1981. Even among women with children under 3 years, 57% had jobs outside the home, as did 62% of those whose youngest child was between 3 and 5 years old.
- In 1992, unemployment rates reached 9.2% among heads of families, 9.1% among spouses, and 18.1% among other family members.
- Real average family income rose only 3% between 1981 and 1991, from \$51,800 to \$53,100. And while the percentage of families with incomes over \$75,000 increased from 18% to 20% over the decade, the proportion with incomes below \$30,000 also grew, from 25% to 27%.
- Just under one in seven families (13%, or 949,000) had incomes below Statistics Canada's low income cut-offs in 1991. A disproportionate number of lone-parent families headed by women under the age of 65 (62%) had incomes that fell below the cut-offs.
- In 1991, about 73% of family income was derived from wages and salaries, down from 77% in 1981; meanwhile, transfer payments accounted for another 12% of family income.
- Wives' incomes accounted for 26% of total family income in 1991, compared with 20% in 1981.
- Three-quarters (74%) of families live in their own home. Husband-wife families with children had the highest rate (79%) of home ownership, and lone-parent households the lowest (32%).

A Portrait of Families in Canada (Catalogue 89-523E) is available for \$37 from Marketing Division, Sales and Service, Statistics Canada K1A 0T6; fax (613) 951-1584. Or call toll-free 1 800 267-6677. □

Maternity leave and part-time work are most common benefits available to working parents

The most recent report from the National Child Care Network, a consortium of child care experts from four Canadian universities, examines parents' perceptions of family-related programs in the workplace. Using data from the 1988 National Child Care Survey, the publication *Workplace Benefits and Flexibility: A Perspective on Parents' Experiences* estimates the number of working parents with access to family-supportive benefits and work arrangements, the factors that affect such access, the tension experienced by working parents, and their preferences for family-supportive work arrangements.

The report focuses on the 1.4 million parents who worked outside the home and also assumed primary responsibility for organizing child care in the family. (That is, one parent per family, whether in a husband-wife or lone-parent situation, was surveyed. About 94% of parents with primary-care responsibilities were women.) Almost three-quarters of primary-care parents (73%) were employed full time and over half (53%) of them had at least one child under the age of six at home.

The report's findings include the following:

- Unpaid maternity leave and the option to work part time were the most common types of family-related benefits provided by employers, and both were available to 53% of primary-care parents in the fall of 1988.
- 32% of primary-care parents were able to work flexible hours, while 23% could use paid family leave to deal with emergencies. Only 6% worked for employers who provided child-care facilities in the workplace.
- Primary-care parents in skilled jobs (professionals, semi-professionals and technicians) and in more senior positions (senior and middle management) were more likely to report that their employer offered flexible work arrangements or paid family-related leave than those in jobs with fewer skill requirements. Parents in the public sector also had more generous leave provisions than those in the private sector.
- Almost two-thirds of primary-care parents reported experiencing moderate or severe levels of tension because of the difficulties encountered trying to balance work and family responsibilities.
- Over half (53%) of primary-care parents would have preferred to work part time to solve work and family conflict, and 13% did not want to work at all. And while almost three-quarters of all primary-care parents worked full time, only one-third expressed a preference for such a schedule.
- Almost 70% of working parents believed that a change in workplace policies and practices would help them better balance their work and family obligations. The two options requested most frequently were workplace child care (23%) and flexible work hours (19%).

Workplace Benefits and Flexibility: A Perspective on Parents' Experiences (Catalogue 89-530E) is available for \$25 from Marketing Division, Sales and Service, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6; fax (613) 951-1584. Or call toll-free 1 800 267-6677. □

Upcoming event

Processing and interpreting survey data (Toronto, March 22-23, 1994)

Led by Statistics Canada methodologists, this two-day workshop will provide an overview of how to process questionnaires and a basic examination, interpretation and presentation of survey results. It will introduce concepts and basic techniques involved in processing and understanding survey data to first-time and occasional survey researchers, as well as managers and others whose jobs involve reading research reports or commissioning research.

Topics to be covered include how to:

- plan analysis
- process questionnaires (data capture, coding, editing)
- assess the impact of type of data on analysis and interpretation
- summarize results
- examine data relationships using methods such as crosstabulations, graphs and statistical techniques
- present survey results.

The workshop will employ a combination of lectures and hands-on workshops. Group discussion and sharing of experiences will be strongly encouraged.

The workshop will be held March 22 and 23, 1994 at The Park Plaza Hotel, Toronto. Registration is \$400 on or before March 8, \$450 after that date (plus GST). For information, call 973-6574 in Toronto, or toll-free 1 800 263-1136 outside Toronto. □

New survey

February 1994: Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics, labour market component

In 1994, the longitudinal Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID) begins to collect its first full year of labour and income data. Over the course of six years, SLID will record events in a person's life that can influence economic well-being – such as moving, family formation and dissolution – and relate these events to changes in labour force participation and income. With SLID, Canada joins a growing number of countries using longitudinal "panel surveys" to better understand what causes changes in people's economic well-being.

SLID will be conducted among approximately 40,000 households, split between two overlapping panels. The first panel of about 15,000 households was selected in January 1993; the second panel will be chosen in January 1996. A preliminary interview of households in the first panel was conducted in January 1993 – that is, at the beginning of the first reference period – to collect information on household membership, basic demographics and current labour force activity. Thereafter, data for the previous calendar year will be collected twice a year for six years: a January interview for labour information and a May interview for income data. Each panel will be in the survey for six years and will be replaced as it "matures," meaning that a new panel will enter the survey every three years. All persons in selected households are in the SLID sample, and will remain there over the life of the panel; respondents who move will be followed, and all persons who move into a SLID household will also be surveyed as long

as they remain household members. (Background information gathered in the preliminary interview will be updated as necessary in subsequent interviews.)

In February 1994, labour market data for 1993 was collected for the first panel of households. For all respondents, enough information was collected to derive their labour force status each week of the year and data were gathered on the number of employers worked for during the year (up to a maximum of six). For both paid and self-employed workers, data on the more detailed characteristics of up to three jobs were captured, including:

- industry and main duties of the job,
- firm or establishment size,
- spells of employment and of joblessness.

For paid workers, information was also gathered about:

- wages and hours worked,
- use of flexible work arrangements,
- absences from work lasting more than one week (excluding paid vacations),
- pensions,
- union membership.

All workers were also asked if they had attended an educational institution, and whether they had any disabilities and how these might limit labour force participation.

N.B. Regular news about the SLID project are published in the quarterly newsletter *Dynamics*, which reports on SLID plans and progress, products and services, and research activities. The September 1993 issue of *Dynamics* published a summary of results of the 1993 field tests as well as a list of papers available in the *SLID Research Paper Series*.

Results of the first year of SLID data (1993) should be available in late 1994 or early 1995. For further information about the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics

(SLID), contact Philip Giles at (613) 951-2891; or fax (613) 951-3253. □

Conference report

Symposium on the Family and Work Arrangements generates great interest

In late September 1993, over 200 people from government, industry, unions and academia attended the one-day Symposium on the Family and Work Arrangements. The conference was organized by Statistics Canada, in collaboration with the Women's Bureau of Labour Canada (now Human Resources Development), to encourage wider discussion of the complex issue of balancing work and family responsibilities. It comprised two distinct parts: the data component, at which Statistics Canada analysts presented results of the Survey of Work Arrangements and other family and work-related Statistics Canada surveys; and the policy component, at which human resource managers, union researchers and ordinary workers discussed their experiences in formulating, evaluating and living with work and family programs.

No formal proceedings of the symposium have been prepared, but a brief summary of the main presentations is outlined below.

Data component

Jason Siroonian, Cécile Dumas and Deborah Sunter – analysts in the Labour and Household Surveys Branch – presented the major findings of the Survey of Work Arrangements. They concluded that shift work, working at home and flexitime will probably become more common in the future. The prevalence of shift work will likely continue to grow, since the service industries, which have a greater tendency than other industries to expect their workers to

adopt non-traditional work arrangements, are the dominant employers in the economy. For the same reason, the analysts predicted that working at home and flexitime, which are more prevalent in the service sector and among white-collar workers, will also become more commonplace.

In presenting an overview of the Survey, **Jason Siroonian** highlighted those aspects of work arrangements that would have the greatest impact on families; for instance, only 54% of all paid workers have a regular daytime, weekday schedule. While men's work patterns are not affected by children, women with children are less likely to work (68%) than women without children (90%); furthermore, mothers in dual-earner couples are more likely to work part time.

Cécile Dumas presented data showing that over 604,000 paid workers, or 6% of the paid workforce, worked at home; more than half of these persons (55%) worked fewer than 15 hours weekly in their residences. Older workers (especially women) with older children were more likely to use these arrangements, which would appear to indicate that working at home is not used as a substitute for child care. On the other hand, it would seem that flexitime is used to assist child-care arrangements. About 1.7 million paid workers, or 16%, had flexitime work schedules. About one in five paid workers in dual-earner families with a preschooler worked flexitime, but only one in seven workers in single-earner families had such hours.

Deborah Sunter examined Canada's two million full-time shift workers, and found that just over one-third (700,000) were parents with children under the age of 16 at home; half of these parents had children under the age of 6. However, only 6% of women (48,000) and virtually no men had chosen to work shift to meet their child-care

responsibilities. Since occupation dictated the work patterns of most shift workers, shift rates did not differ much among different types of families. The difference between unattached and married men was not noticeable, while only working mothers with non-employed husbands (27%) and lone mothers (33%) – both with at least one child under 6 years – had rates exceeding the average for all women (21%). Sunter concluded that shift work is rarely used as a child-care option by working parents.

For more details, see "Balancing work and family responsibilities" in this issue of *Perspectives* (Spring 1994), "Flexitime work arrangements" (Autumn 1993), and "Working shift" (Spring 1993).

T. Scott Murray, Assistant Director of the Special Surveys Group, presented ideas about several surveys that could provide more information on work and family than is currently available. His suggestions for further analysis of the National Child Care Survey included: identifying parents' chief concerns about their child's well-being while they are at work; exploring the types of circumstances that most frequently disrupt child-care arrangements; and quantifying absenteeism and lateness due to child-care problems. Murray identified seven other surveys that could be mined for work and family information, and also drew participants' attention to three new longitudinal surveys currently in the planning stages, or about to enter the field: the National Children's Survey of 25,000 families, which covers children's growth and development over a 20-year reference period; the National Population Health Survey; and the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics, which will collect data on the interaction of the labour market and the family over a six-year period.

Judith Frederick, a senior analyst with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, analyzed the relationship between work and family through the use of time, specifically the hours spent on paid and unpaid work. Her work on the results of the 1992 General Social Survey on Time Use showed that mothers with children under the age of 15 perform 89 hours of unpaid domestic work a week, while fathers do 43 hours. When paid work is included in the hours of work done by each parent, the gap narrows somewhat: on average, mothers perform 107 hours per week of paid and unpaid work combined, and fathers do 86 hours (on average, these men do slightly over twice as much paid work as the women). Over half (56%) of mothers felt moderately or highly stressed by lack of time, compared with 46% of fathers; on the other hand, 43% of women without children felt similar degrees of time-induced stress. (For more details, see "Tempus fugit ... Are you time crunched?", *Canadian Social Trends*, Winter 1993.)

Dr. Leroy O. Stone, Associate Director General of the Analytical Studies Branch, used the Survey of Work Arrangements and the Labour Force Survey to analyze the impact of family responsibilities on work arrangements. He concluded that they exerted considerable influence on the work arrangement decisions of a significant proportion of women, especially those of child-rearing age (25 to 44). About one-quarter of women aged 25 to 44 working part time chose reduced work hours because of their personal or family responsibilities; similarly, almost one-quarter of women aged 25 to 34 who were unemployed or not in the labour force had left their last job because of such responsibilities. On the other hand, family responsibilities did seem to increase the likelihood of women having non-standard work arrangements; in fact, about 30% of adult women compared with only 20% of adult men worked non-standard hours.

Policy component

The two panel discussions centred on the impact on the workplace of the radical change in the composition of the labour force and the definition of the family. Participants examined the extent and effectiveness of employers' work and family policies as a response to their workers' family responsibilities, placing particular emphasis on flexible work arrangements (FWA).

Johanne Totta, Vice-President of Workplace Equity, Bank of Montreal, and **John Emerson**, Manager of Human Resources Services, Royal Bank of Canada, outlined the policies of their companies. Emerson said that consolidating its existing family leave and benefits policies under one "work and family" umbrella has resulted in greater use of the programs, simply because more employees are now aware of them. Totta ascribed the Bank of Montreal's success with its work and family program to the fact that it has been thoroughly integrated into the workplace. She stressed that this practice is essential to prevent workers who adopt FWA from worrying about jeopardizing promotion opportunities.

Susan Kingsbury, Senior Planning Officer at Treasury Board Secretariat, described the process of choosing an FWA. She discussed the research that employees should undertake to decide whether an FWA would meet their needs and circumstances and, if so, what kind of FWA is appropriate; she outlined several techniques for negotiating an FWA with a manager; and, given that an employee's circumstances can change, also emphasized the importance of reviewing the arrangement periodically to assess whether it is still working.

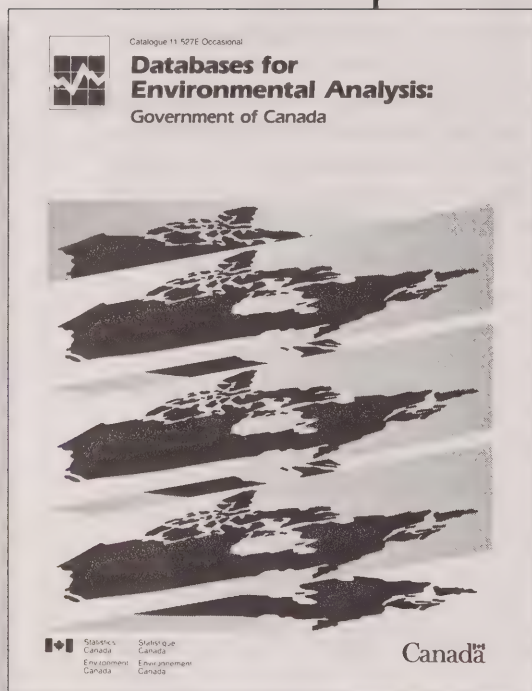
Penni Richmond of the Canadian Labour Congress stated that, although many employers now have better and more flexible work arrangement policies, workers still suffer from burn-out. She suggested that legislated family-related leave, employer-funded child-care subsidies and stress counselling could reduce worker stress.

David Shackleton, a former manager at Northern Telecom Limited and founder of the first self-help group at the company, described the advantages of establishing self-help groups in the workplace. He said that they offer valuable peer-level support which allows employees to take responsibility for themselves.

Panel discussants **Heather Swail**, Coordinator of the Employee Child Care Assistance Project, and **Judith MacBride-King**, Research Associate of the Conference Board of Canada, summarized the day's

discussions by identifying "work and family" as an intensely social and political issue. However, they also recognized that there is no single solution to handling the conflict between work and family responsibilities, and that although FWA policies are promising, their problems include unequal access, the ad hoc nature of many policies, and the type of communication existing between employer and employee (open or adversarial). Swail captured the tenor of the symposium by concluding that change will come, but it will be slow. □

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Key labour and income facts

The following selection of labour and income indicators is drawn from 11 sources and includes published and unpublished annual data. These indicators appear in every issue.

The latest annual figures are always shown; as results become available, the indicators are updated so that every issue contains new data. An indicator updated or revised since the last issue is "flagged" with an asterisk.

Data sources

The indicators are derived from the following sources:

- 1-13 & 15 Labour Force Survey**
Frequency: Monthly
Contact: Doug Drew (613) 951-4720
- 14 Survey of Consumer Finances**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Kevin Bishop (613) 951-2211
- 16 Absence from Work Survey**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Nancy Brooks (613) 951-4589
- 17 National Work Injuries Statistics Program**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Joanne Proulx (613) 951-4040
- 18 Help-wanted Index**
Frequency: Monthly
Contact: André Picard (613) 951-4045
- 19-20 Unemployment Insurance Statistics Program**
Frequency: Monthly
Contact: André Picard (613) 951-4045

- 21-28 Survey of Employment, Payrolls and Hours**
Frequency: Monthly
Contact: Cindy Ingalls (613) 951-4090
- 29-31 Major wage settlements, Bureau of Labour Information (Human Resources Development)**
Frequency: Quarterly
Contact: Information (819) 997-3117
- 32-34 Labour income (Revenue Canada, Taxation; Survey of Employment, Payrolls and Hours; and other surveys)**
Frequency: Quarterly
Contact: Ed Bunko (613) 951-4048
- 35-45 Survey of Consumer Finances**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Kevin Bishop (613) 951-2211
- 46-52 Household Facilities and Equipment Survey**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Penny Barclay (613) 951-4634
- 53-54 Small area and administrative data**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Customer Services (613) 951-9720

Notes and definitions of certain indicators are given at the end of the table.

Additional data

The table provides, at the most, two years of data for each indicator. A longer time series (generally 10 years) for this set of indicators can be obtained, on paper or diskette, at a cost of \$50. (A more extensive explanation of the indicators is also available.) This 10-year data set is updated quarterly. For information, contact Jeannine Usalcas at (613) 951-6889; fax (613) 951-4179.

Key labour and income facts

No.	Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
Labour market							
*1	Labour force	'000	1992 13,797	236	64	416	331
			1993 13,946	234	65	419	332
	Change	%	1.1	-0.9	1.1	0.6	0.3
*2	Participation rate	%	1992 65.5	53.6	65.8	59.9	59.0
			1993 65.2	52.8	65.3	59.8	59.0
*3	Employed	'000	1992 12,240	188	53	361	289
			1993 12,383	186	53	357	291
	Change	%	1.2	-0.9	1.0	-1.1	0.6
*4	Proportion of employed working part time	%	1992 16.8	13.5	16.4	17.5	15.6
			1993 17.3	14.2	17.2	17.8	16.0
*5	Proportion of part-timers wanting full-time work	%	1992 32.5	62.1	43.4	45.5	45.9
			1993 35.5	63.8	43.5	47.7	50.4
*6	Unemployed	'000	1992 1,556	48	11	55	42
			1993 1,562	47	12	61	42
	Change	%	0.4	-0.6	1.5	11.7	-1.6
*7	Official unemployment rate	%	1992 11.3	20.2	17.7	13.1	12.8
			1993 11.2	20.2	17.7	14.6	12.6
Alternative measures of unemployment							
*8	Unemployed 14 or more weeks as a proportion of the labour force	%	1992 5.5	10.2	7.3	6.0	5.4
			1993 5.6	10.7	7.8	7.0	5.4
*9	Unemployment rate:						
	- of persons heading families with children under age 16	%	1992 9.7	19.0	17.4	10.9	11.5
			1993 9.5	19.1	17.9	12.5	11.4
	- excluding full-time students	%	1992 11.0	20.1	17.9	12.7	12.6
			1993 10.9	20.0	18.0	14.3	12.3
	- including full-time members of the Canadian Armed Forces	%	1992 11.2	20.1	17.6	12.8	12.6
			1993 11.1	20.1	17.7	14.2	12.4
	- of the full-time labour force	%	1992 13.6	23.6	21.4	16.6	16.0
			1993 13.9	24.0	21.6	18.3	16.1
	- of the part-time labour force	%	1992 14.1	21.7	12.0	16.7	15.6
			1993 14.4	21.5	13.0	18.0	15.7
	- including discouraged workers and others on the margins of the labour force	%	1992 12.1	24.4	18.7	14.1	14.8
			1993 12.0	24.4	18.9	15.6	14.2

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
3,385	5,286	535	480	1,370	1,693	1992	'000	1
3,404	5,362	540	479	1,384	1,728	1993		
0.6	1.4	0.9	-0.2	1.0	2.0		%	
62.5	67.3	66.0	66.6	71.9	66.3	1992	%	2
62.2	66.9	66.6	66.6	71.5	65.7	1993		
2,953	4,714	484	440	1,240	1,517	1992	'000	3
2,960	4,793	490	440	1,252	1,561	1993		
0.2	1.7	1.3	-	1.0	2.9		%	
15.1	17.3	19.4	18.4	16.4	18.0	1992	%	4
15.7	18.1	19.4	18.4	17.1	17.8	1993		
38.0	29.1	32.8	35.4	27.8	27.9	1992	%	5
41.9	32.0	34.3	38.2	31.7	30.0	1993		
432	572	51	39	130	176	1992	'000	6
444	569	50	38	132	167	1993		
2.9	-0.5	-2.8	-2.4	1.7	-5.0		%	
12.8	10.8	9.6	8.2	9.5	10.4	1992	%	7
13.1	10.6	9.2	8.0	9.6	9.7	1993		
6.8	5.4	4.0	3.4	3.8	4.5	1992	%	8
7.2	5.5	4.3	3.4	4.1	4.3	1993		
										9
10.6	9.1	8.1	7.3	8.5	9.1	1992	%	
10.3	8.9	7.6	7.0	9.0	8.0	1993		
12.6	10.3	9.2	8.0	9.3	10.3	1992	%	
12.8	10.2	8.8	7.8	9.2	9.5	1993		
12.7	10.8	9.5	8.2	9.4	10.4	1992	%	
13.0	10.6	9.2	8.0	9.5	9.6	1993		
15.3	12.8	12.4	11.4	11.3	12.8	1992	%	
15.8	13.1	12.2	11.3	11.7	12.0	1993		
15.3	14.8	12.9	9.6	13.1	11.9	1992	%	
16.8	14.0	12.3	10.9	14.5	12.5	1993		
14.2	11.3	10.2	8.8	9.9	10.7	1992	%	
14.6	11.0	9.9	8.5	9.9	10.1	1993		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
*10	Underutilization rate based on hours lost through unemployment and underemployment	%	1992 1993	14.3 14.6	24.3 24.8	22.0 22.3	17.5 19.1	17.1 17.3
*11	Proportion unemployed six months or longer	%	1992 1993	28.1 30.8	29.3 33.0	-- --	23.9 26.8	22.2 23.8
Other labour market indicators								
*12	Employment/population ratio for persons aged:							
	- 15 to 24 years	%	1992 1993	53.5 52.1	32.4 30.5	49.4 51.3	48.0 46.7	46.9 46.5
	- 25 to 64 years	%	1992 1993	70.0 70.1	53.7 53.4	67.1 66.0	64.5 63.3	63.5 63.8
	- 65 years and over	%	1992 1993	6.4 6.2	3.1 2.3	7.2 6.2	3.6 4.0	4.0 3.7
*13	Employment by major class of worker:							
	- employees	'000	1992 1993	10,372 10,399	162 159	43 44	314 306	253 253
	- self-employed	'000	1992 1993	1,807 1,912	26 27	10 10	46 51	35 36
*14	Men working full time, full year	'000	1991 1992	5,126 5,091	68 65	18 19	143 132	115 118
	Women working full time, full year	'000	1991 1992	3,419 3,423	45 48	13 13	93 96	79 82
*15	Days lost per full-time worker per year through illness or for personal reasons	days	1992 1993	9.2 9.3	10.7 9.4	7.9 7.7	9.0 9.8	8.9 8.5
16	Proportion of paid workers absent two or more consecutive weeks because of illness or accident	%	1991 1992	6.3 5.6	5.0 4.1	4.8 4.0	5.6 5.4	6.5 6.0
*17	Workers receiving Workers' Compensation for time-loss injuries	'000	1991 1992	521 456	9 8	2 2	13 12	12 10
	Change	%		-12.5	-17.3	-6.3	-4.3	-14.2
*18	Help-wanted Index (1991 = 100)		1990 1992	154 86	153 88	126 96	146 87	144 82

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
15.8	13.6	13.1	12.1	12.1	13.3	1992	%	10
16.4	13.9	13.0	12.2	12.6	12.7	1993		
33.1	29.8	23.6	21.0	20.4	22.5	1992	%	11
34.2	33.3	26.9	23.2	24.4	24.2	1993		
										12
48.8	55.3	58.3	54.4	59.7	58.8	1992	%	
46.9	53.7	58.4	55.1	58.6	57.5	1993		
65.3	72.2	73.6	76.6	75.3	72.2	1992	%	
65.4	72.5	74.5	76.6	75.3	72.1	1993		
4.7	7.0	7.1	12.6	10.1	5.0	1992	%	
4.1	6.8	7.8	13.3	9.5	5.2	1993		
										13
2,545	4,068	399	328	1,007	1,253	1992	'000	
2,529	4,095	403	327	1,007	1,275	1993		
394	630	80	102	224	259	1992	'000	
415	674	83	104	232	279	1993		
1,264	1,981	194	188	534	621	1991	'000	14
1,237	1,999	199	187	510	624	1992		
819	1,388	122	114	331	415	1991	'000	
825	1,393	133	108	325	401	1992		
10.7	9.0	8.4	8.1	7.7	8.6	1992	days	15
10.4	9.1	9.7	8.6	7.9	9.3	1993		
7.8	6.0	6.1	5.0	4.9	6.2	1991	%	16
5.9	5.2	7.8	3.8	5.9	5.8	1992		
179	155	18	13	39	79	--	1	1991	'000	17
146	137	17	12	32	78	--	1	1992		
-18.1	-11.9	-8.6	-5.6	-17.1	-1.6	--	-2.3		%	
151	161	147	136	160	147	1990		18
87	87	93	83	76	87	1992		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
Unemployment insurance								
19	Total beneficiaries	'000	1991	1,365	80	15	63	65
			1992	1,388	81	16	65	67
	Change	%		1.7	1.6	5.0	2.7	2.5
20	Regular beneficiaries without reported earnings	'000	1991	1,024	63	11	46	51
			1992	1,006	63	11	46	51
	Change	%		-1.8	-	4.4	-1.0	-1.0
Earnings (including overtime) and hours								
21	Average weekly earnings in current dollars	\$	1991	531.58	499.24	429.29	476.30	480.62
			1992	549.80	510.65	444.70	491.10	494.39
	Change	%		3.4	2.3	3.6	3.1	2.9
22	Average weekly earnings in 1986 dollars	\$	1991	421.22	413.28	340.98	381.96	386.97
			1992	429.20	418.22	350.43	391.31	395.51
	Change	%		1.9	1.2	2.8	2.5	2.2
23	Average weekly earnings of salaried employees in current dollars	\$	1991	665.75	603.37	560.75	605.37	603.32
			1992	691.04	621.71	599.84	621.34	624.15
	Change	%		3.8	3.0	7.0	2.6	3.5
24	Average weekly earnings of salaried employees in 1986 dollars	\$	1991	527.54	499.48	445.39	485.46	485.76
			1992	539.45	509.18	472.69	495.09	499.32
	Change	%		2.3	1.9	6.1	2.0	2.8
25	Average weekly earnings of hourly paid employees in current dollars	\$	1991	409.98	379.14	284.23	363.17	382.63
			1992	421.51	381.63	285.01	375.98	393.56
	Change	%		2.8	0.7	0.3	3.5	2.9
26	Average weekly earnings of hourly paid employees in 1986 dollars	\$	1991	324.87	313.86	225.76	291.23	303.08
			1992	329.05	312.56	224.59	299.59	314.85
	Change	%		1.3	-0.4	-0.5	2.9	3.9
27	Average weekly hours of hourly paid employees	hrs	1991	30.8	33.8	31.0	31.6	33.3
			1992	30.5	33.5	30.4	31.7	33.1
28	Average weekly overtime hours of hourly paid employees	hrs	1991	0.9	1.2	0.4	0.6	0.7
			1992	0.8	0.9	0.3	0.6	0.7
Major wage settlements								
29	Number of agreements		1991	534	15	4	19	24
			1992	482	10	5	5	14
30	Number of employees	'000	1991	1,331	52	7	29	42
			1992	1,309	27	7	5	30
31	Effective wage increase in base rates	%	1991	3.6	2.3	5.5	0.5	2.5
			1992	2.1	0.1	0.3	1.9	1.6

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
427	391	41	30	90	159	2	2	1991	'000	19
433	400	40	31	97	154	2	2	1992		
1.2	2.4	-2.4	2.8	8.1	-2.7	-1.1	18.7		%	
330	286	28	22	67	116	1	2	1991	'000	20
322	284	26	21	69	108	1	2	1992		
-2.5	-0.5	-7.7	-1.0	2.9	-6.6	-4.0	15.2		%	
518.50	555.83	477.90	465.33	532.04	534.88	634.28	705.85	1991	\$	21
537.13	578.30	488.56	472.35	546.59	549.09	677.86	714.13	1992		
3.6	4.0	2.2	1.5	2.7	2.8	6.8	1.2		%	
410.21	435.60	382.32	370.19	427.00	432.05	1991	\$	22
417.35	448.29	385.30	371.93	432.43	431.67	1992		
1.7	2.9	0.8	0.5	1.3	-0.1		%	
630.62	701.53	611.79	615.88	688.98	660.39	761.59	790.35	1991	\$	23
654.66	733.38	632.38	618.11	703.25	682.99	835.62	813.88	1992		
3.8	4.5	3.4	0.4	2.1	3.4	9.7	3.0		%	
498.91	549.79	489.43	489.96	552.95	533.43	1991	\$	24
508.67	568.51	498.72	486.70	556.37	536.94	1992		
2.0	3.4	1.9	-0.7	0.6	0.7		%	
413.58	424.56	358.49	327.46	377.07	433.80	467.01	583.65	1991	\$	25
429.49	436.08	365.83	336.67	387.98	441.91	494.62	576.41	1992		
3.9	2.7	2.1	2.8	2.9	1.9	5.9	-1.2		%	
327.20	332.73	286.79	260.51	302.62	350.40	1991	\$	26
333.71	338.05	288.51	265.09	306.95	347.41	1992		
2.0	1.6	0.6	1.8	1.4	-0.9		%	
31.8	30.8	30.2	28.0	29.5	29.4	31.3	33.5	1991	hrs	27
31.5	30.6	30.0	28.3	29.3	29.2	31.0	33.1	1992		
0.8	0.9	0.7	0.7	1.3	0.9	1.9	3.4	1991	hrs	28
0.7	0.9	0.7	0.7	1.1	0.8	2.2	2.6	1992		
104	154	41	5	43	56	1991		29
84	169	17	8	43	66	1992		
450	269	75	11	56	72	1991	'000	30
464	343	19	13	76	170	1992		
3.2	5.8	2.4	4.4	5.3	5.0	1991	%	31
1.2	2.4	2.4	3.4	3.6	3.3	1992		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
Labour income								
32	Labour income in current dollars	\$ million	1991	376.7	5.1	1.2	9.4	7.4
			1992	388.1	5.1	1.2	9.6	7.7
	Change	%		3.0	—	4.6	2.3	3.6
33	Labour income per employee in current dollars	\$	1991	35,000	29,900	27,300	28,900	29,500
			1992	36,500	31,300	28,200	30,300	29,800
	Change	%		4.2	4.6	3.4	4.7	1.0
34	Labour income per employee in 1986 dollars	\$	1991	27,700	24,800	21,700	23,200	23,800
			1992	28,500	25,600	22,200	24,100	23,900
	Change	%		2.7	3.5	2.6	4.1	0.4
*35	Net income from self-employment as a proportion of money income	%	1991	5.5	3.7	6.6	4.4	4.2
			1992	5.1	3.3	6.5	3.7	4.3
Earnings of full-time, full-year workers								
*36	Average earnings of men working full time, full year	\$	1991	38,600	33,400	30,500	35,300	34,700
			1992	39,500	36,200	32,600	37,600	35,200
	Change	%		2.3	8.3	6.6	6.7	1.2
*37	Average earnings of women working full time, full year	\$	1991	26,800	24,500	24,700	23,200	23,000
			1992	28,400	25,200	26,100	24,900	24,700
	Change	%		5.6	2.8	5.7	7.1	7.3
*38	Ratio of female-to-male earnings	%	1991	69.6	73.4	80.8	65.8	66.1
			1992	71.8	69.7	80.1	66.0	70.2
Family income								
*39	Average family income	\$	1991	53,100	41,700	42,800	45,100	44,300
			1992	53,700	42,100	44,400	46,900	46,500
*40	Median family income	\$	1991	46,700	36,600	38,000	39,400	38,700
			1992	47,700	36,800	39,400	40,500	41,700
*41	Average income of unattached individuals	\$	1991	22,500	18,200	16,500	19,100	19,900
			1992	23,200	19,600	18,800	18,800	19,000
*42	Median income of unattached individuals	\$	1991	17,300	13,100	12,200	14,700	15,100
			1992	17,600	13,900	14,400	13,100	14,300
43	Average family taxes	\$	1990	10,200	6,500	6,000	7,900	7,200
			1991	10,500	6,700	7,000	8,100	7,600
44	Average family income after tax	\$	1990	41,400	34,300	33,700	36,500	35,200
			1991	42,600	35,000	35,800	37,000	36,700

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
87.4	160.6	12.3	9.6	36.2	45.3	0.5	1.2	1991	\$ million	32
90.2	164.9	12.6	9.9	37.3	47.4	0.6	1.2	1992		
3.2	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.9	4.6	8.3	1.8		%	
33,200	38,000	29,700	28,300	34,000	35,100	1991	\$	33
34,700	39,700	31,200	29,500	35,300	36,400	1992		
4.5	4.5	4.9	4.4	3.7	3.6		%	
26,300	29,800	23,800	22,500	27,300	28,400	1991	\$	34
26,900	30,800	24,600	23,200	27,900	28,600	1992		
2.6	3.4	3.4	3.3	2.2	0.8		%	
4.3	5.7	6.7	10.3	6.4	5.5	1991	%	35
4.2	5.3	6.5	8.7	4.4	6.4	1992		
36,700	41,500	31,900	31,900	39,300	38,700	1991	\$	36
37,300	42,200	34,900	32,700	38,700	40,900	1992		
1.6	1.6	9.2	2.6	-1.5	5.7		%	
25,700	29,000	23,800	22,100	25,300	27,100	1991	\$	37
27,600	30,400	24,500	23,100	27,200	28,600	1992		
7.1	4.8	2.6	4.4	7.5	5.4		%	
70.1	69.8	74.7	69.4	64.5	70.2	1991	%	38
73.9	71.9	70.2	70.6	70.3	70.0	1992		
48,600	58,600	46,600	45,900	55,600	54,900	1991	\$	39
48,600	58,800	50,300	48,200	54,700	56,400	1992		
42,700	52,000	41,300	40,900	48,100	50,600	1991	\$	40
43,800	52,800	43,700	41,300	47,700	50,300	1992		
20,700	24,700	20,400	20,000	23,500	22,600	1991	\$	41
21,100	26,300	18,900	20,300	22,900	23,400	1992		
15,200	20,000	16,000	14,600	19,100	18,200	1991	\$	42
15,000	20,300	14,600	14,600	17,700	20,600	1992		
9,600	11,500	8,500	8,100	9,900	10,900	1990	\$	43
10,100	11,800	8,300	8,600	11,000	10,600	1991		
37,500	45,500	38,700	36,100	42,100	43,600	1990	\$	44
38,500	46,900	38,300	37,400	44,500	44,300	1991		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
*45	Proportion below the low income cut-offs (1992 base):							
	– families	%	1991 1992	12.9 13.3	16.2 18.4	10.6 7.2	12.9 13.8	12.3 11.5
	– unattached individuals	%	1991 1992	40.0 39.7	50.8 44.5	49.0 38.1	40.2 48.5	39.7 40.3
	– persons (population)	%	1991 1992	16.5 16.8	18.1 20.7	15.4 11.4	16.2 17.8	14.9 14.0
	– children (less than 18 years)	%	1991 1992	18.9 18.9	20.3 26.4	17.3 12.3	21.0 20.5	19.2 15.6
	– elderly (65 years and over)	%	1991 1992	21.7 20.6	20.6 21.7	19.7 14.5	19.0 20.0	15.5 13.8
	Households and dwellings							
*46	Estimated number of households and dwellings	'000	1992 1993	10,056 10,247	177 182	46 47	329 336	256 256
*47	Average household income	\$	1991 1992	46,100 46,800	39,200 39,500	37,700 39,400	39,800 40,600	40,200 41,500
*48	Proportion of households with:							
	– VCRs	%	1992 1993	73.8 77.3	74.6 76.9	69.6 74.5	75.4 77.7	73.4 78.9
	– microwaves	%	1992 1993	76.0 79.1	68.9 72.0	69.6 76.6	76.9 79.5	76.2 82.0
	– two or more automobiles	%	1992 1993	24.6 23.8	11.9 14.8	23.9 25.6	20.1 19.4	19.9 21.5
	– vans and trucks	%	1992 1993	26.8 28.4	36.2 33.5	32.6 34.0	28.9 27.7	34.0 36.7
	– air conditioners	%	1992 1993	26.7 25.7	-- --	-- --	4.9 3.9	6.6 10.2
*49	Proportion of all dwellings that are owner-occupied	%	1992 1993	63.1 64.1	78.5 78.6	69.6 74.5	71.4 72.3	75.4 76.2
*50	Proportion of all owner-occupied dwellings that are mortgage free	%	1992 1993	50.6 48.3	68.3 70.6	53.1 54.3	57.0 53.1	56.0 52.8
*51	Dwellings in need of repair as a proportion of all occupied dwellings	%	1992 1993	26.7 22.0	31.1 31.3	28.2 25.6	34.3 27.1	32.4 26.1
*52	Median rent-to-income ratio	%	1992 1993	22 22	16 16	23 20	22 24	19 19

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
45										
15.4	11.2	17.4	13.6	13.0	10.6	1991	%	
14.8	11.1	14.2	13.8	16.2	13.5	1992		
47.8	34.9	43.5	37.2	36.2	39.1	1991	%	
48.9	33.6	48.3	38.3	39.8	34.1	1992		
19.5	14.0	22.7	17.8	16.6	15.4	1991	%	
18.7	14.0	19.9	18.1	20.2	17.1	1992		
20.1	17.5	29.3	21.9	19.5	14.5	1991	%	
18.3	16.2	23.3	22.8	24.2	19.8	1992		
27.3	19.7	24.7	12.4	21.1	21.8	1991	%	
28.9	15.9	23.6	12.1	24.0	20.8	1992		
2,656	3,647	396	359	912	1,278	1992	'000	46
2,688	3,765	387	361	923	1,302	1993		
41,600	51,500	39,700	39,600	48,700	46,000	1991	\$	47
41,900	51,800	42,500	41,200	48,000	48,000	1992		
48										
69.1	76.8	71.2	69.4	78.4	73.3	1992	%	
72.6	79.7	75.5	71.7	82.3	78.6	1993		
72.9	77.7	75.5	81.3	81.0	73.6	1992	%	
75.9	80.0	79.8	84.8	84.8	78.0	1993		
20.9	27.9	22.2	21.7	28.4	25.0	1992	%	
22.7	25.6	22.5	21.3	26.5	22.6	1993		
17.4	23.3	31.1	44.6	43.4	35.1	1992	%	
17.3	25.6	35.7	44.3	44.7	39.2	1993		
14.0	48.6	49.0	34.3	10.0	7.5	1992	%	
15.3	44.7	45.7	33.8	8.9	9.1	1993		
55.0	63.9	67.4	71.6	65.5	65.7	1992	%	49
56.4	64.4	69.5	71.7	67.8	66.1	1993		
47.3	48.0	56.2	60.3	47.9	54.5	1992	%	50
46.3	46.6	53.9	60.6	45.7	47.1	1993		
25.1	25.4	32.1	30.6	28.7	24.8	1992	%	51
20.7	20.9	26.6	23.8	25.7	20.4	1993		
20	23	23	21	21	25	1992	%	52
21	23	22	20	23	25	1993		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.	Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
53	Labour force income profile						
Number of taxfilers	'000	1991	18,786	378	87	613	503
Income:							
Number reporting	'000	1991	18,711	376	87	610	501
Amount	\$ million	1991	470,165	7,196	1,730	13,392	10,264
Median	\$	1991	19,300	14,100	16,000	16,800	15,600
Canadian index (median income)	%	1991	100.0	73.1	82.9	87.0	80.8
Labour force income:							
Number reporting	'000	1991	14,231	291	68	451	372
Amount	\$ million	1991	357,250	5,745	1,308	10,066	7,809
Employment income:							
Number reporting	'000	1991	13,911	278	67	440	362
Amount	\$ million	1991	341,191	4,809	1,130	9,357	7,046
Median	\$	1991	19,500	10,300	11,700	16,600	14,300
Canadian index (median employment income)	%	1991	100.0	52.8	60.0	85.1	73.3
Self-employment income:							
Number reporting	'000	1991	1,915	31	12	52	35
Amount	\$ million	1991	20,231	222	100	667	328
Unemployment Insurance benefits:							
Number reporting	'000	1991	3,410	148	29	142	139
Amount	\$ million	1991	16,059	936	178	709	763
54	Economic dependency profile						
Transfer payments:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	80,086	2,004	459	2,926	2,451
Employment income	\$ million	1991	341,191	4,809	1,130	9,357	7,046
Economic dependency ratio (EDR)		1991	23.47	41.66	40.65	31.27	34.78
Canadian index (EDR)	%	1991	100.0	177.5	173.2	133.2	148.2
Unemployment Insurance benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	16,059	936	178	709	763
Contribution to EDR	%	1991	4.71	19.47	15.70	7.58	10.83
Family Allowance benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	2,684	64	14	89	75
Contribution to EDR	%	1991	0.79	1.32	1.23	0.95	1.06
Federal sales tax credits:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	2,530	65	14	92	80
Contribution to EDR	%	1991	0.74	1.36	1.22	0.98	1.14
Child Tax Credit benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	2,240	64	14	81	72
Contribution to EDR	%	1991	0.66	1.34	1.23	0.87	1.03
Old Age Security benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	10,960	184	55	379	298
Contribution to EDR	%	1991	3.21	3.83	4.89	4.05	4.23
CPP/QPP benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	13,336	199	55	483	340
Contribution to EDR	%	1991	3.91	4.13	4.88	5.16	4.83
Other pension benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	18,024	227	68	662	426
Contribution to EDR	%	1991	5.28	4.72	6.01	7.08	6.05
Non-taxable income/provincial tax credits:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	14,251	264	62	431	396
Contribution to EDR	%	1991	4.18	5.50	5.48	4.61	5.62

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
53										
4,770	7,021	761	643	1,698	2,262	19	32	1991	'000	
4,749	6,994	759	641	1,691	2,253	18	32	1991	'000	
109,336	193,011	16,621	13,990	44,274	58,872	518	961	1991	\$ million	
17,800	21,500	16,900	16,700	19,900	20,000	23,700	22,000	1991	\$	
92.2	111.4	87.6	86.5	103.1	103.6	122.8	114.0	1991	%	
3,509	5,371	554	486	1,376	1,707	17	28	1991	'000	
83,710	146,585	12,044	9,930	34,754	43,970	459	871	1991	\$ million	
3,410	5,264	541	479	1,354	1,671	16	28	1991	'000	
78,728	141,844	11,589	9,583	33,696	42,134	434	842	1991	\$ million	
18,800	21,800	17,000	15,000	19,500	19,900	22,800	23,700	1991	\$	
96.4	111.8	87.2	76.9	100.0	102.1	116.9	121.5	1991	%	
347	693	102	138	245	257	2	2	1991	'000	
4,241	8,292	819	1,025	1,701	2,800	18	16	1991	\$ million	
1,032	1,065	115	87	243	399	4	6	1991	'000	
4,982	4,741	455	347	1,058	1,835	26	29	1991	\$ million	
54										
20,291	30,465	3,247	2,627	5,785	9,692	55	83	1991	\$ million	
78,728	141,844	11,589	9,583	33,696	42,134	434	842	1991	\$ million	
25.77	21.48	28.02	27.41	17.17	23.00	12.64	9.91	1991		
109.8	91.5	119.4	116.8	73.2	98.0	53.9	42.2	1991	%	
4,982	4,741	455	347	1,058	1,835	26	29	1991	\$ million	
6.33	3.34	3.93	3.63	3.14	4.36	5.92	3.42	1991	%	
660	958	114	111	279	309	3	8	1991	\$ million	
0.84	0.68	0.98	1.16	0.83	0.73	0.72	1.00	1991	%	
712	841	114	99	220	286	2	4	1991	\$ million	
0.90	0.59	0.99	1.04	0.65	0.68	0.51	0.52	1991	%	
578	702	115	116	237	250	2	8	1991	\$ million	
0.73	0.49	0.99	1.21	0.70	0.59	0.55	0.96	1991	%	
2,673	4,103	545	487	789	1,439	3	5	1991	\$ million	
3.39	2.89	4.70	5.08	2.34	3.42	0.77	0.56	1991	%	
3,134	5,372	571	502	953	1,718	5	4	1991	\$ million	
3.98	3.79	4.93	5.23	2.83	4.08	1.20	0.52	1991	%	
3,716	7,677	706	580	1,338	2,610	7	6	1991	\$ million	
4.72	5.41	6.10	6.05	3.97	6.19	1.63	0.76	1991	%	
3,835	6,072	626	385	912	1,245	6	18	1991	\$ million	
4.87	4.28	5.40	4.01	2.71	2.95	1.35	2.16	1991	%	

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Notes and definitions

No.

- 1 Persons aged 15 and over who are employed or unemployed.
- 2 The labour force as a proportion of the population aged 15 and over.
- 4 Persons who usually work less than 30 hours per week.
- 7 Unemployed as a proportion of the labour force.
- 8 This rate and rates shown as Indicators 9 and 10 are described in *Perspectives on Labour and Income* (Statistics Canada, Catalogue 75-001E) 4, no. 4 (Winter 1992): 35-43.
- 9 The full-time labour force includes persons working full time, those working part time involuntarily and unemployed persons seeking full-time work.

The part-time labour force includes persons working part time voluntarily and unemployed persons seeking part-time work.

Discouraged workers and others on the margins of the labour force are persons who have looked for work in the past six months, but not during the reference week because they believed none was available or because they were waiting for recall or for replies from employers.
- 10 The rate shows hours lost through unemployment (unemployed multiplied by average actual weekly hours) and through underemployment (that is, short-time work schedules and involuntary part-time employment) as a proportion of hours worked plus hours lost.
- 12 The number of persons employed in an age group expressed as a percentage of the population for that age group.

- 13 Employees work for an employer for remuneration, usually in the form of a wage or salary.

No.

- Self-employed workers are working owners of incorporated or unincorporated businesses with or without paid help.
- 29 Data are for agreements involving bargaining units of 500 or more employees. The total includes federal and provincial agreements.
 - 32 Labour income comprises gross wages and salaries (including directors' fees, bonuses, commissions, gratuities, taxable allowances and retroactive pay) and supplementary labour income (payments made by employers for the benefit of employees, including contributions to health and welfare schemes, pension plans, Workers' Compensation and Unemployment Insurance).
 - 33 Labour income per employee is calculated using LFS estimates of paid workers excluding those absent without pay during the entire reference week.
 - 45 For an explanation of the methodology underlying the low income cut-offs, see *Income Distributions by Size in Canada* (Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207).
 - 52 The rent-to-income ratio refers to rent in the reference year divided by income in the previous year.
 - 53-54 Data are derived from tax returns filed in the spring of the year following the reference year. The mailing address at the time of filing determines the province.

Economic dependency ratio:

$$\text{EDR} = \frac{\text{Total transfer payments}}{\text{Total employment income}} \times 100$$

(Example: For each \$100 in employment income earned by Canadians in 1991, an additional \$23.47 of income was received in the form of transfer payments.)

In the works

Here are some of the topics to be featured in upcoming issues of *Perspectives on Labour and Income*.

■ Trends in participation rates of lone mothers with preschool children

Lone parents' attachment to the labour force has become more tenuous over the last 15 years.

■ Getting there

Every weekday, more than nine million Canadians travel to and from work. This article looks at the time it takes these commuters to make the daily journey back and forth, and how commuting-time is affected by the means of transportation they use.

■ Spending patterns of couples without children

The proportion of married couples without children at home is growing. Their spending patterns, however, vary substantially according to their stage in the life cycle.

■ Declining female labour force participation rate

Female participation rates in the labour market rose during the last three decades. In 1991, however, they started to decline. This study investigates whether it is a pervasive phenomenon involving all age groups, or if it is concentrated among only a few.

■ Unemployment Insurance beneficiaries

This note examines the distribution of Unemployment Insurance beneficiaries by the last occupation held and compares this distribution with that of paid workers.

■ Working 9-to-5

For 55% of all paid workers, a fixed daily schedule is still the standard work arrangement. This note reviews the characteristics of these workers and examines their distribution by industry and occupation.

■ Weekend workers

For some people weekend work has always been unavoidable. Recently, however, the number of weekend workers has expanded as consumers are demanding more weekend services.

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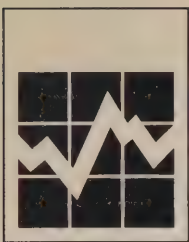
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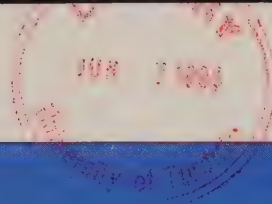
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- WORKING "9 TO 5"
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B. Yarkin

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PERSPECTIVES

ON LABOUR AND INCOME

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Symbols

The following standard symbols are used in Statistics Canada publications:

- .. figures not available
- ... figures not appropriate or not applicable
- nil or zero
- amount too small to be expressed
- p preliminary figures
- r revised figures
- x confidential to meet secrecy requirements of the Statistics Act

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Forum

Letter from the Editor-in-Chief

■ This issue marks an anniversary: it is five years since the summer of 1989, when *Perspectives* was first released. Self-congratulations is not really our style, but a nod of thanks and recognition is due to the team as we enter our sixth year of publication.

Looking at the table of contents for this twenty-first issue, the first thing that strikes me is that it captures the principal intention of *Perspectives* – to explore contemporary issues using a wide variety of data sources. Of course, a statistician's first dry thoughts about the table of contents are usually irrelevant to our readers, but in this case I think they are pertinent because some articles deftly illustrate the flexibility of survey data. For example, "Spending patterns of couples without children" uses the Survey of Family Expenditures (FAMEX) to examine the expenditures of people over the life cycle. FAMEX data have been used in past *Perspectives* articles that analyze disposable income, delineate differences in the spending patterns of urban and rural residents, and compare the spending of Canadian and American households. FAMEX could also be called upon to explore household savings, spending by low-income households, and household expenditures on indirect consumption taxes. All these possibilities exist in a survey whose *raison d'être* is input to the Consumer Price Index.

In contrast, the General Social Survey (GSS) on time use (Cycle 7) was designed to meet a wide array of applications right from the start. It is also the only show in town for data on paid and unpaid work performed by the same people. This makes it an invaluable source of information about the amount of work Canadians do in a "real" day. In this issue, "Getting there" uses these data to examine the time people spend travelling between their two main places of employment – their paid work in offices and factories, and their unpaid work at home.

And although it is just as rich a data source as FAMEX, the GSS Cycle 7 has adopted a considerably less complicated collection method. The GSS requires respondents to take about 25 minutes to complete both a background questionnaire and a 24-hour diary that chronicles their activities over the course of a single day. In contrast, FAMEX data are collected in an intensive 3-hour personal interview designed to capture all the preceding year's expenditures, from mortgage payments to pet food. Despite their different methodologies and purposes, the two surveys share an important similarity: just as FAMEX measures how we spend our money, the GSS Cycle 7 measures how we spend our time.

But interesting studies do not always require an exhaustive amount of data or an exotic method of collection. Some of Statistics Canada's most routine surveys possess hidden depths. For instance, many readers

are familiar with the way that "Declining female labour force participation" disaggregates Labour Force Survey (LFS) data to explain the recent drop in women's activity in the labour market. Another article, "Left behind: Lone mothers in the labour market" looks at much the same LFS data, but adopts a different point of view to suggest that the work experiences of lone mothers differ considerably depending on whether they are divorced or have never married.

Of course, analyzing data "straight up" to fulfill the original purpose of the survey is still an analyst's bread-and-butter. The two articles "Working '9 to 5'" and "Weekend workers" continue to mine the Survey of Work Arrangements (SWA) for information about people's work patterns (*Perspectives* has published five other SWA-based articles in the last year and doubtless several more avenues await exploration.) Likewise, "Who gets UI?" takes advantage of little-used administrative data to profile unemployed workers in the last two recessions.

In the hands of people who think creatively, even the most humble data source can provide some surprising insights. Our authors are just as willing to discuss the sources they used in their research as they are to talk about their actual findings. We invite you to call them. They're in the book.

Ian Macredie
Editor-in-Chief



We welcome your views on articles and other items that have appeared in *Perspectives on Labour and Income*. Additional insights on the data are also welcome, but to be considered for publication, communications should be factual and analytical. We encourage readers to inform us about their current research projects, new publications, data sources, and upcoming events relating to labour and income.

Statistics Canada reserves the right to select and edit items for publication. Correspondence, in either official language, should be addressed to: Susan Crompton, Forum and What's new? Editor, *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, 5-D Jean Talon Building, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6. Telephone (613) 951-0178; fax (613) 951-4179.

Highlights

Here are some key findings from the articles in this issue of Perspectives on Labour and Income.

Spending patterns of couples without children

■ For those 2.3 million married couples without children at home in 1992, shelter was the single largest expenditure. Shelter took up a fairly constant proportion of all budgets: 23% for both younger (husband less than 45 years) and older (husband aged 65 or over) couples and 21% for middle-age couples.

■ By contrast, food budgets varied considerably. As a proportion of their total spending, older couples' 1992 food expenditures were greatest at 18%. This compares with 15% for middle-age and 13% for younger couples.

■ Older and middle-age couples allocated larger shares of their expenditures to transportation (both 17%) than did younger couples (15%). Clothing budgets tended to be highest among younger couples and declined with advancing age. Expenditures on smoking and drinking were also highest for younger couples.

■ Pension and personal insurance expenditures figured more prominently in the budgets of younger (8%) and middle-age couples (7%) than in the spending of older couples (1%).

Getting there

■ On an average weekday in 1992, 9.1 million workers, representing 92% of the employed population, travelled to and from work. Total two-way commuting time averaged 48 minutes. However, 23% of commuters spent more than an hour in transit, while for 15% the round-trip was a mere 15 minutes.

■ The automobile is by far the most common means of commuting. In 1992, 88% of all weekday trips involved automobiles: 69% of commuters used only a car, and another 18% used a car in combination with some other mode of travel. Walking figured in 22% of commutes, while 10% involved public transportation (bus or subway). Only 2% of commuters used bicycles.

■ Toronto and Vancouver residents had the longest commutes, averaging 60 minutes a day. On the other hand, Halifax commuters spent an average of just 38 minutes a day on the road.

■ Exclusive use of the automobile was most common in Edmonton, where this mode was chosen by 75% of commuters. By comparison, only 60% of Ottawa-Hull commuters depended solely on the car. In fact, more than 30% of commuters in Ottawa-Hull walked all or part of the way to and from work.

Left behind: Lone mothers in the labour market

■ The number of lone mothers with at least one child under the age of six has more than doubled over the last two decades – up from 96,000 in 1976 to 228,000 in 1993. Meanwhile, the number of wives with young children has remained comparatively stable at about 1.4 million.

■ In 1993, 60% of married women with children under six were employed, a percentage almost twice as high as that in 1976. By contrast, only 26% of never-married lone mothers had a job in 1993, down from 1976. The corresponding 1993 proportion for separated or divorced mothers at 44% was only marginally higher than it had been in 1976.

■ As many as 87% of married mothers had recent work experience (employed at the time of the Survey or within the last five years). This compares with 81% of separated or divorced mothers and 78% of those who had never married. Furthermore, the proportion of married mothers who had never worked fell steadily to 3% in 1993, as did the percentage of separated or divorced mothers, although their decline was not as sharp. On the other hand, in 1993, 10% of never-married lone mothers had never worked.

■ Employed wives were more likely to have over five years' job tenure; for instance, in 1993, the proportion was 44% for wives compared with 32% for lone mothers. However, average job tenure improved considerably over time for all mothers. It increased by more than one-half for married mothers, from 3.6 years in 1976 to 5.6 years in 1993, and doubled for lone mothers, from 2.3 to 4.6 years.

■ Lone mothers, particularly those who never married, had much less education than

wives, a fact that may explain some of the employment disparity between married and lone mothers.

Who gets UI?

■ More than 1.1 million individuals received regular Unemployment Insurance benefits, on average, each month in 1992, representing a 29% rise since 1989 (the year preceding the recession).

■ Between 1989 and 1992, the increase in the number of regular beneficiaries was much greater among men than among women: 39% versus 17%.

■ Although more than half the beneficiaries were between the ages of 25 and 44, those 45 and over registered the sharpest relative gain between 1989 and 1992.

■ Ontario had by far the largest increase in the number of Unemployment Insurance beneficiaries between 1989 and 1992: more than 155,000 additional beneficiaries, representing close to 60% of the total increase in Canada.

■ Although, on average, blue-collar workers accounted for 41% of all paid workers in the economy between 1989 and 1992, they made up 60% of Unemployment Insurance beneficiaries.

Declining female labour force participation

■ In 1991, for the first time in nearly four decades, the participation rate of women in the labour force reversed its previous trend and began to decline – from 58.4% in 1990 to 58.2% in 1991 and 57.5% in 1993.

■ While women's labour force participation fell for most age groups during the recession, the decline was most pronounced for 15 to 24 year-olds.

■ The increase in women's participation in the labour force in recent decades has been spearheaded by baby boomers who are now in their forties. In the coming years, these women may contribute to a further rise in women's overall participation rate.

Working "9 to 5"

■ Of the 6.5 million full-time paid workers with a fixed work schedule in 1991, 88% had adopted a daytime schedule. Over 3% worked in the evening, approximately 1% worked at night and 7% fell into none of these categories.

■ Most (70%) daytime workers started work between 8 and 9 a.m. and left work between 4 and 5 p.m.

■ Workers with a fixed daytime schedule had, on average, more seniority (8.2 years) than other workers with a fixed schedule (6.9 years).

Weekend workers

■ In November 1991, 1.1 million persons, or 11% of Canada's employees, worked Saturdays and/or Sundays. Paid workers in service-producing industries were twice as likely as those in the goods-producing sector to work weekends (12% compared with 6%).

■ Among paid workers with regularly scheduled weekend hours, 57% worked Saturdays only and 9% Sundays only. The remaining 34% worked both days.

■ Weekend work was most commonly performed by younger workers. Paid workers aged 15 to 24 accounted for 42% of those who regularly worked Saturdays and 45% of those working Sundays.

■ Paid workers in New Brunswick and Ontario were the least likely to work weekends (9%), while those in British Columbia were the most likely (14%).

What's new?

■ *Earnings of Men and Women in 1992* presents selected results of the Survey of Consumer Finances, a supplement to the Labour Force Survey. Data tables on earnings received during 1992 are published for all workers, and analysis is presented for full-time, full-year workers.

■ The special feature article in *Labour Force Annual Averages, 1993* explores trends in occupation growth over the last two decades. Data tables provide provincial employment breakdowns according to detailed socio-demographic characteristics.

■ *Health Status of Canadians* reports on the general health, psychological well-being, use of health care, chronic pain, sleep difficulties, smoking, alcohol use, employment, and physical activity of Canadian workers.

■ *Family Expenditure in Canada, 1992* examines the spending habits of Canadian households. The report relates spending patterns to household income and other sociodemographic characteristics.

■ *Youth in Canada* presents a large array of issues that affect young people aged 15 to 19. Data from a number of surveys are used to explore teenagers' work experience, income, family, education, health, time use, criminal activity, and victimization.

Highlights

■ Last May, the collection of 1993 income data was completed for the first panel of households participating in the longitudinal Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

■ The Economic Equality Workshop, sponsored by Status of Women Canada in

November 1993, addressed issues of particular importance to women, including the impact of economic restructuring, patterns of paid and unpaid work, and the choices faced by working women with family responsibilities. □

Spending patterns of couples without children

Lynn Barr-Telford

Not all families worry about the costs of diapers and daycare. In 1992, over 2.3 million married couples had no children at home.¹ Without the expense of feeding, clothing, housing, educating, and entertaining children, these couples might be expected to exercise considerable freedom spending their money.

In recent years, the number of such couples has grown at a relatively fast pace. The Survey of Family Expenditures shows that from 1982 to 1992, couples without children at home increased 26%, while total households rose just 16% (see *The Survey of Family Expenditures*). As a result, by 1992, these couples constituted 24% of all households, up from 22% in 1982.²

But couples without children are not a homogeneous group. They can be at very different stages of the family life cycle, and their spending patterns vary accordingly.

This article examines the 1992 after-income-tax expenditures of couples without children. To approximate life stages, three groups are compared: younger couples (defined as those with a husband less than 45 years), middle-age couples (husband 45 to 64 years), and older couples (husband 65 years or older).

Lynn Barr-Telford is with the Education, Culture and Tourism Division. She can be reached at (613) 951-1518.

The Survey of Family Expenditures

The 1992 Survey of Family Expenditures was carried out in urban and rural areas of the 10 provinces as well as in the Yukon (Whitehorse and Yellowknife only). Data were collected in January, February and March of 1993 from a sample of about 12,000 households. Respondents in these households were asked to recall their expenditures for the previous year.

Purchases of large items – automobiles, for example – were recalled fairly readily, as were rent, property taxes, and monthly interest payments on mortgages. By contrast, the accuracy of data on other expenditures depended on the respondents' ability to remember such purchases in detail or their willingness to consult records. However, several features of the survey helped respondents recall their spending. First, the survey period was the calendar year because it is usually most clearly defined in people's minds. Second, food expenditures (about one-eighth the average budget in 1992) could be estimated as weekly or monthly expenses. Third, spending on smaller items bought at regular intervals was usually estimated on the basis of amount and frequency of purchase.

The Survey of Family Expenditures has been conducted approximately every two years since 1953. Data from the survey are used to monitor and periodically update the weights in the Consumer Price Index.

For more information, contact the Family Expenditure Surveys Section, Household Surveys Division, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6, (613) 951-9781.

Family income and earners

Income is a key predictor of spending. As might be expected, a rise in income enables couples to increase the quantity and improve the quality of the goods and services they purchase.

In 1992, the average incomes of younger and middle-age couples were \$56,200 and \$51,200 respectively, compared with \$31,200 for older couples. These income differences were largely attributable to the labour force status of the partners (Table 1). The likelihood of having at least one full-time earner was highest for younger couples at 82%, followed by 59% for middle-age couples and 11% for older couples.³ Indeed, 89% of older couples had no full-time earner. As well, among 39% of younger and 18% of middle-age couples, there were two full-time earners, whereas the figure for older couples was only 3%.

After-income-tax spending

The high average income of younger couples translates into high expenditures. In 1992, these couples spent \$54,100, on average (Table 2).⁴ A large portion of these expenditures went to income taxes (\$12,800), so younger couples' after-income-tax spending averaged \$41,300.

With lower incomes than the young, middle-age couples paid somewhat less income tax (\$11,600) and had lower after-income-tax spending (\$37,200).

Older couples had the lowest incomes, paid the lowest income taxes, and had the lowest average after-income-tax expenditures: \$25,200.

Spending power

The spending power of couples without children (the total amount they spend relative to their representation in the population) varies depending on their ages. Younger couples' total 1992 expenditures were greater than their numbers would suggest. They accounted for 7.1% of all households, but their combined expenditures of \$28.9 billion constituted 8.2% of all spending that year.

Table 1
Selected characteristics of couples without children at home, 1992

	Younger* couples	Middle-age** couples	Older† couples
Number of households ('000)	700	870	777
Average age of:			
Husband	31	56	73
Wife	29	54	69
		%	
Two full-time earners	39	18	3
One full-time earner	44	41	7
No full-time earners	18	41	89
Proportion owning:††			
Home	51	79	79
With mortgage	44	27	9
Vacation home	—	14	12
Refrigerator	72	89	88
Freezer	42	76	74
Stove	72	88	88
Microwave	84	83	73
Dishwasher	24	35	30
Washing machine	70	87	83
Clothes dryer	69	84	76
VCR	83	78	51
Computer	27	17	5

Source: Survey of Family Expenditures

* Husband under 45 years.

** Husband 45 to 64 years.

† Husband 65 years or older.

†† As of December 31, 1992.

The spending power of middle-age couples was slightly above their representation in the population. They spent a total of \$32.4 billion in 1992. This was 9.1% of all expenditures, although middle-age couples made up 8.9% of all households.

By contrast, older couples' spending power did not match the size of the group. While their combined spending of \$19.6 billion was 5.5% of all 1992 expenditures, older couples accounted for 7.9% of all households.

Table 2
Expenditures of couples without children at home, 1992

	Annual average expenditures			Percentage reporting expenditures		
	Younger* couples	Middle-age** couples	Older† couples	Younger couples	Middle-age couples	Older couples
	\$			%		
Total expenditures	54,090	48,860	29,660			
Income tax	12,770	11,650	4,440			
Total expenditures after income tax	41,320	37,210	25,220			
Shelter	9,610	7,920	5,710	100	100	100
Principal accommodation	9,090	7,070	5,260	100	100	100
Other accommodation	520	850	450	56	54	41
Household operation	1,890	1,760	1,330	100	100	100
Household furnishings and equipment	1,920	1,600	990	97	96	92
Food	5,490	5,550	4,520	100	100	100
Transportation	6,280	6,160	4,280	100	100	99
Private	5,680	5,710	3,960	97	97	90
Public	600	450	320	79	60	60
Clothing	2,730	1,980	1,260	99	100	100
Personal care	900	760	610	100	100	100
Recreation	3,010	2,150	1,430	100	98	92
Education	390	70	20	36	14	5
Reading	300	280	240	96	93	90
Tobacco	960	880	460	56	45	30
Alcohol	890	670	380	93	83	70
Personal insurance and pensions	3,270	2,770	320	98	85	33
Health care	760	1,040	870	98	98	97
Gifts and contributions	1,170	2,170	1,990	92	92	93
Miscellaneous	1,760	1,490	810	98	96	89

Source: Survey of Family Expenditures

* Husband under 45 years.

** Husband 45 to 64 years.

† Husband 65 years or older.

Note: Estimates may not add to totals due to rounding.

Different life stages ... different spending patterns

At different ages priorities shift, and couples allocate their budgets accordingly.

Younger couples tend to focus on acquisitions: a home, furnishings, vehicles, clothing, and recreational equipment. By contrast, middle-age couples with mortgage-free homes equipped with most household amenities can allocate relatively more

money to travel, health care, and gifts and contributions.

Lower incomes for older couples means that they spend less on virtually all products and services than do the two other age groups. Lower incomes also compel older couples to spend larger proportions of their budgets on necessities – housing, food, and transportation. Even so, the shares of expenditures devoted to health care and gifts and contributions peak among older couples.

Housing

Shelter was the single largest spending category for couples of all ages.⁵ In 1992, such costs represented a fairly constant proportion of all budgets: 23% for younger and older couples and 21% for middle-age couples. In dollar terms, however, younger couples spent the most on shelter, averaging \$9,610 a year compared with \$5,710 for older couples.

Although relatively few younger couples own a home, those who do tend to have the highest mortgage interest payments.⁶ In 1992, close to half of younger couples reported paying mortgage interest, averaging \$6,040. By contrast, fewer than a third of middle-age couples (\$3,980) and just one in ten older couples (\$2,820) had such payments.

Younger couples are also the most likely to purchase household furnishings and equipment. They spent an average of \$1,920 on such items in 1992, almost double the amount spent by older couples (\$1,000).

A notable exception to this pattern was utilities (water, fuel and electricity), for which younger couples paid an average of \$1,100 compared with \$1,640 for middle-age and \$1,450 for older couples. Younger couples' low spending on these services may be attributable to the high percentage of tenants among them. Water, heating, and electricity are frequently included in rental costs.

Middle-age couples were the top spenders on accommodation besides their principal residence, such as owned and rented vacation homes and traveller accommodation in hotels, motels, campgrounds and tourist homes. Middle-age couples averaged \$850 on these items, while younger couples spent \$520, and older couples, \$450.

Food

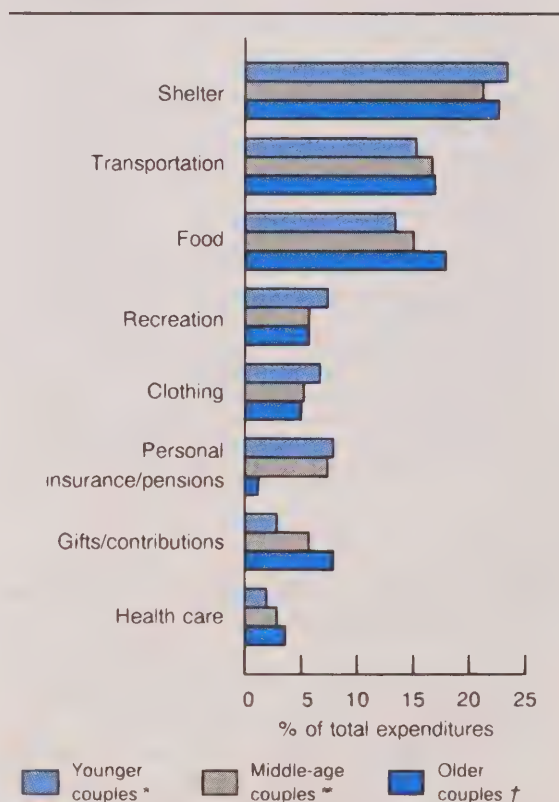
Food budgets vary considerably for couples of different ages. As a proportion of their total spending, older couples' 1992 food expendi-

tures were greatest at 18% and ranked second only to their shelter costs (Chart). This compared with 15% for middle-age and 13% for younger couples. In dollar terms, however, both younger and middle-age couples' food bills averaged about \$5,500 compared with \$4,520 for older couples.

As well, couples spend their food budgets in different ways. Younger couples devoted 37% of their 1992 food dollars to restaurant meals, far exceeding such spending by middle-age and older couples. But not all younger couples' restaurant meals

Chart

Older couples spend relatively more on necessities.



Source: Survey of Family Expenditures, 1992

* Husband under 45 years.

** Husband 45 to 64 years.

† Husband 65 years or older.

involved gourmet cuisine. About a third of this money was spent at work, probably to buy lunches from a cafeteria, snack bar, or vending machine.

Transportation

Older and middle-age couples allocated larger shares of their budgets to transportation (both 17%) than did younger couples (15%). The actual amount spent by older couples, however, averaged \$4,280 in 1992, considerably less than the transportation expenditures of younger and middle-age couples (both over \$6,000).

For all couples, operating and maintaining a vehicle were the most expensive aspects of transportation in 1992. Gasoline, tires, batteries, tune-ups, oil changes, and so on took up 64% of younger, 58% of middle-age and 57% of older couples' transportation budgets.

A few big spenders

Average expenditures per household are based on both households that reported buying an item and those that did not. Because averages are easily skewed by single large purchases, a small number of buyers can distort the spending picture.

Expensive items, bought in any given year by relatively few households, illustrate this point. For instance, just 12% of older couples purchased package travel tours in 1992. However, this globe-trotting minority paid an average of \$2,900 versus around \$2,000 for younger and middle-age couples. Thus, averaged over all older couples, package travel tours made up 25% of their recreation spending, but just 11% for middle-age and 8% for younger couples.

Similarly, only 13% of middle-age couples bought recreational vehicles in 1992, compared with 22% of younger couples. However, younger couples were more likely than middle-age ones to purchase bicycles: 15% versus 4%. Consequently, the average amount younger couples paid for recreational vehicles was \$1,430 compared with \$3,370 for middle-age couples, who tended to buy items such as travel trailers and motor homes. Therefore, averaged over all middle-age couples, recreational vehicles accounted for 28% of their entertainment dollars; for younger couples, the figure was 16%.

Averaged over all households, the cost of buying a vehicle ranked second in transportation spending. But obviously, not all couples made such a purchase in 1992 (See *A few big spenders*). Among younger couples, 31% reported buying a vehicle, compared with 22% of middle-age and 15% of older couples. At an average of \$6,530, younger couples spent less than middle-age (\$10,420) and older couples (\$11,880). These costs, however, were after trade-in.⁷

Public transit takes a relatively small share of all couples' transportation expenditures. Perhaps because a high proportion of younger couples are employed, and are therefore commuters (Marshall, 1994), they spend the most on public transit – an average of \$600 in 1992, or 10% of their transportation budget. For middle-age and older couples, the amounts were lower (\$450 and \$320 respectively) and represented 7% of their transportation spending.⁸

Clothing

Clothing budgets tend to be highest for younger couples and decline with advancing age. Younger couples' 1992 spending on clothes averaged \$2,730 and accounted for 7% of their total expenditures. Middle-age couples spent \$1,980 and older couples, \$1,260, which represented 5% of the total expenditures of both groups. Regardless of a couple's age, the wife's average clothing expenditures exceeded those of her husband.

Recreation

The proportion of all 1992 spending allocated to recreation did not vary substantially for couples of different ages. However, 7% of a younger couple's budget averaged \$3,010, whereas 6% of middle-age and older couples' expenditures amounted to \$2,150 and \$1,430, respectively.

Younger couples were more likely than middle-age or older couples to purchase items such as sporting and athletic equipment, computers, and photographic goods and services. As well, these expenses accounted for 21% of younger, but only 12% of middle-age and 6% of older couples' recreation spending.

The pattern was similar for home entertainment equipment and services. Not only were younger couples the most likely to buy televisions, VCRs, and compact disc players, but they also spent the most. These purchases made up 23% of younger, but just 16% of middle-age and older couples' recreation expenditures.

A large share (28%) of the recreation spending of middle-age couples was allocated to recreational vehicles. However, this resulted from a small number buying expensive items such as travel trailers, motor homes and truck campers.

A comparable spending pattern accounts for the high proportion of older couples' recreation dollars allotted to package travel tours. Although just 12% of older couples went on such trips, those who did, spent considerably more than their younger counterparts.⁹

Tobacco and alcohol

Expenditures on smoking and drinking are highest for younger couples. At an average of \$1,850 in 1992, younger couples' spending on these items exceeded that of middle-age couples (\$1,550) and was more than twice the amount spent by older couples (\$840). As well, the likelihood of reporting purchases of tobacco and alcohol was greatest for younger couples.

In keeping with their propensity to eat out, younger couples spent a relatively large share of their alcohol budget "going out for a drink." Fully 34% of younger couples' alcohol purchases were in licensed premises, whereas the figures were 21% for middle-age and 17% for older couples.

Pensions and personal insurance

Pension and personal insurance expenditures figure much more prominently in the budgets of younger (8% or \$3,270) and middle-age couples (7% or \$2,770) than in the spending of older couples (1% or \$320). This is because such expenditures consist largely of obligatory payments tied to employment, such as Unemployment Insurance premiums and contributions to the Canada/Quebec Pension Plan. Since few older couples are employed, these payments constitute only a small proportion of their overall spending.

Gifts and contributions

As couples grow older, their generosity seems to increase. In 1992, middle-age couples' gifts and contributions averaged \$2,170, making up 6% of their total expenditures – about the same amount that they spent on recreation. Older couples' spending on gifts and contributions was somewhat lower (\$1,990), but constituted 8% of their total expenditures. By contrast, younger couples gave an average of \$1,170 – just 3% of their total spending.

The recipients of these gifts and contributions also vary with the age of couples. Religious organizations, for example, received 21% of older couples' expenditures in this category, compared with 15% of middle-age and 12% of younger couples' spending.

Health care

As might be expected, health care looms larger in a budget as couples age. Health care accounted for 3% of middle-age and older couples' 1992 spending, compared with 2% for younger couples.

Conclusion

Income is the major determinant of the amounts couples without children spend.

Higher incomes allow younger couples to spend more on almost everything they purchase. At older ages, both income and expenditures fall off.

However, the way that couples without children allocate their money reflects their life stage. Younger couples tend to concentrate on acquisitions such as a home and furnishings, whereas most older couples have already made these purchases. Other items that take up relatively large shares of younger couples' budgets – clothing, eating out, and recreation equipment – also constitute declining proportions of spending as couples age. At older ages, food, transportation, health care, and gifts and contributions account for growing shares of expenditures.

In the near future, changes in the demographic picture could also bring changes in the spending power and spending patterns of middle-age and older couples. The number of middle-age couples will rise in the 1990s as baby boomers begin to enter the empty-nest phase. And in the next century, these people will swell the ranks of older couples. Because baby boom women are likely to be employed, this growth in the number of couples without children will be accompanied by a shift from wives who are homemakers to wives who are in the workforce or are receiving retirement benefits. Consequently, the number of two-income, middle-age couples will increase, and older couples may have more money left over after paying for necessities. □

Notes

¹ Married couples comprise legally married and common-law couples. Married couples without children are households consisting only of the two spouses. They may be childless couples (some of whom may eventually have children) or empty nesters whose children have left home.

² The count of households based on the Survey of Family Expenditures may differ slightly from results obtained from the census or other surveys.

³ A full-time earner was employed for 49 weeks or more in 1992, of which at least 25 were on a full-time basis.

⁴ The difference between income and spending is attributable to net changes in the value of both assets and liabilities during 1992. Assets include bank accounts, money on hand, money owed to the household, stocks and bonds (excluding the change in market value), the sale of personal property, and investments in real estate, including the home and business. Liabilities include notes due to banks, loan and insurance companies, etc., instalment purchases, charge accounts and other bills, rents, and taxes. Contributions to and withdrawals from registered retirement savings plans are included in net changes in assets and liabilities.

⁵ Shelter expenditures include property taxes, mortgage interest payments, rent, insurance, maintenance, repairs, utilities, vacation homes, and traveller accommodation.

⁶ The Survey of Family Expenditures does not define mortgage payments on the principal as "spending." These payments are considered as assets.

⁷ These purchases refer to both new and used vehicles. It is difficult to make conclusions about the amounts that couples of different ages spend on vehicles because the figures show what buyers paid after trade-in. As well, younger couples tend to replace their vehicles about twice as often as do older couples. Thus, although younger couples paid relatively little, they may be receiving more generous trade-ins for vehicles that they drove for only a few years. At the same time, older couples may be more inclined to drive a vehicle to the point where they receive very little for the trade-in, and thus pay much more for a new car or truck.

⁸ To some extent, the relatively small amount older couples spent on public transportation may reflect seniors' discounts, offered in many jurisdictions.

⁹ Spending on package travel tours is counted among recreation expenditures and does not constitute total travel spending. A number of other categories also have travel components. For instance, among food expenditures are purchases made on trips from stores and restaurants. Similarly, shelter costs incorporate traveller accommodation, and transportation includes spending on inter-city travel. In each of these cases, younger couples were the most likely to report expenditures, although their average outlays were not necessarily the highest.

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Getting there

Katherine Marshall

A workday is more than just the hours on the job. For most workers, it also consists of time spent travelling to and from their place of employment. Home-based work and telework may be appealing options, but so far, these arrangements are relatively rare. For the majority of the workforce, "getting there" is still part of the daily routine.

More than 9 million

According to the General Social Survey,¹ on a typical weekday (Monday through Friday) in 1992, 9.1 million workers,² representing 92% of the employed population, travelled to and from work (see *Non-commuters*). As might be expected, the number of commuters dropped sharply on weekends (see *Weekend commuters*).

Total weekday commuting time to work and back averaged 48 minutes in 1992. However, 23% of commuters spent over an hour in transit, and 10% averaged more than 90 minutes (Chart A). By contrast, for 15% of commuters, the journey to and from work took no more than a quarter of an hour.

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Non-commuters

A minority of the employed population (770,000 or 8%) did not commute in 1992. There are several reasons for this: they may have worked at home; lived very close to their workplace; lived temporarily at their workplace (e.g., construction site, logging camp); or have had an occupation, such as truck driving, that kept them on the road throughout their workday. In 1992, the majority of non-commuters were self-employed (67%). Primary occupations, which include farming, fishing, forestry and mining, had both the highest rates of self-employment (57%) and the highest percentage of non-commuters (40%).

Weekend commuters

The number of commuters drops sharply on weekends. In 1992, the average number of commuters was 2.6 million on Saturdays and 1.7 million on Sundays, compared with the weekday average of more than 9 million. And while 92% of those employed on weekdays commuted, just 75% of weekend workers did so. Female workers were considerably more likely than their male counterparts to commute on weekends: 82% versus 71%.

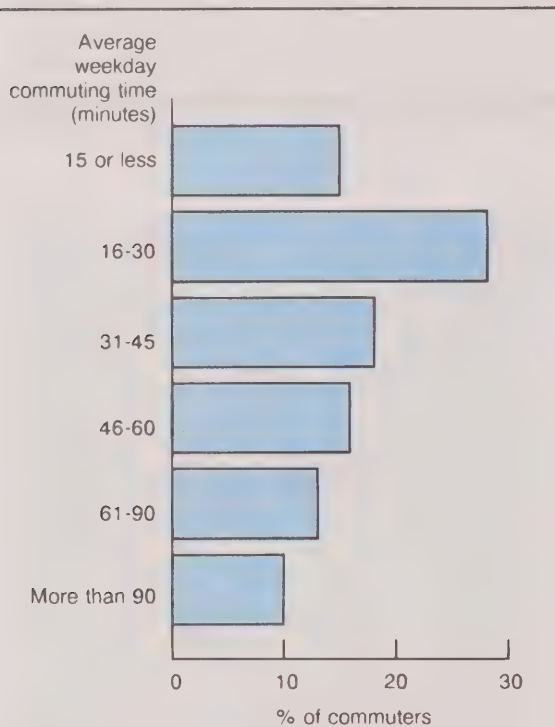
Getting to and from work is faster on weekends than on weekdays. In 1992, total travel time averaged 42 minutes on Saturday and 37 minutes on Sunday, compared with 48 minutes during the week. Only 15% of Saturday commutes and 9% of those on Sunday lasted over an hour.

Rush hours

On weekday mornings, the period from 7:00 to 7:59 a.m. sees the greatest number of commuters setting out for work.³ In 1992, more than 3 million commuters began their trip during this interval (Chart B). The

Chart A

Almost one-quarter of commuters spend more than an hour travelling to and from work.



Source: General Social Survey, 1992

hours immediately before and after this peak were also popular for leaving home, with 1.7 million workers heading out between 6:00 and 6:59 a.m. and another 2 million, between 8:00 and 8:59 a.m. Earlier and later commuters were less numerous: just under 500,000 left for work before 6:00 a.m. and 592,000 set out after 9:00 a.m.

The rush hour peak is less pronounced in the evening than in the morning. In 1992, the most common time to leave work, involving 1.9 million commuters, was from 5:00 to 5:59 p.m. However, the 4:00 to 4:59 p.m. interval was almost as popular, with over 1.8 million workers heading home during that period.

Off-hour commutes sometimes longest

In 1992, the average morning commute was 22 minutes and in the evening, 24 minutes. However, trips that took place before the rush hour peaks tended to be somewhat longer. For example, commuters who set out between 5:00 and 5:59 a.m. were on the road for an average of 32 minutes; those starting their journey from 4:00 to 4:59 a.m. averaged 29 minutes. Similarly, at the end of the workday, commuters who left before the evening peak had slightly longer-than-average trips home.

These longer travel times may reflect the commuting patterns of the people who live farthest from their place of work. They may have to leave early in the morning to arrive at work on time. They may also choose to arrange their working schedules to beat the morning and afternoon rush hours.

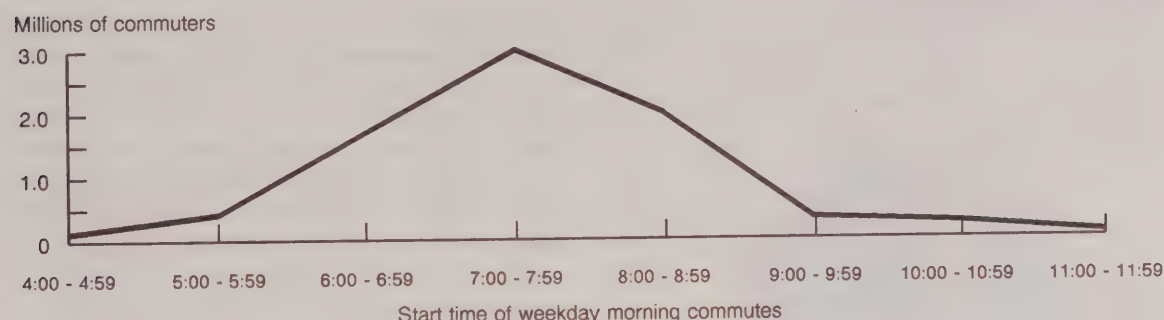
The car dominates

The automobile is by far the most common means of commuting and has been for some time.⁴ In 1992, 88% of all weekday trips (an average of 7.9 million commuters a day) involved automobiles: 69% of commuters used only a car, and another 18% used a car in combination with some other mode of travel (Chart C). Walking figured in 22% of commutes, while 10% involved public transportation (bus or subway). Just 2% of commuters used bicycles.⁵

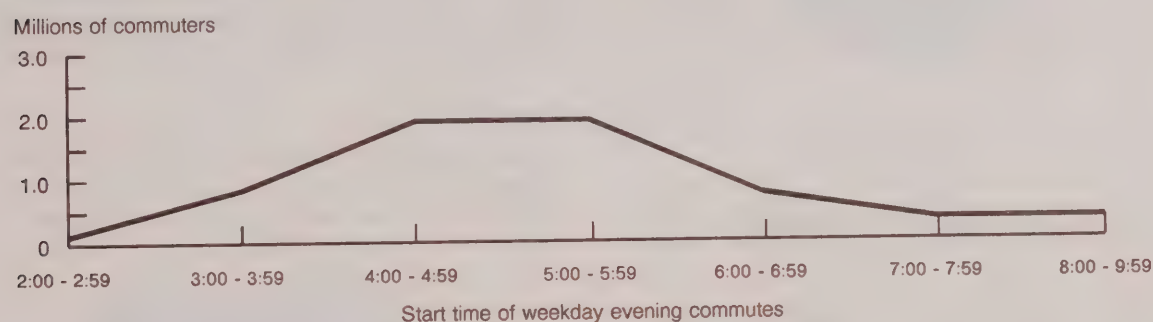
The automobile's dominance varied somewhat with the age of commuters. Those aged 35 to 54 were the most likely to use a car as their only means of getting to work (73%), while commuters aged 15 to 24 were the least likely to do so (60%). Relatively large proportions of commuters under 25 walked (26%) or used public transportation (17%) all or part of the way. These figures reflect the comparatively low rates of car ownership among people younger than 25.

Chart B

The morning rush occurs between 7:00 and 8:00 a.m. ...



... while the evening rush lasts from 4:00 to 6:00 p.m.



Source: General Social Survey, 1992

Affluent more likely to drive

The automobile is not only the most common means of commuting, but it also seems to be the mode that workers select when their income allows them the flexibility of choice. For instance, 74% of commuters from households with annual incomes of \$60,000 or more used automobiles only. By contrast, just 58% of those with incomes less than \$20,000 relied solely on the car.

Walking was involved in 20% of the commutes of workers from higher-income households, compared with 27% for those from households with lower incomes. Similarly, only 6% of commuters with household incomes of \$60,000 or more used public

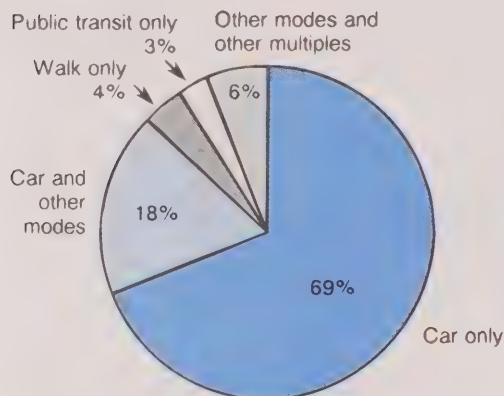
transportation, whereas such facilities figured in the journeys of 15% of commuters from households receiving less than \$20,000.

Short walks ... long rides

The mode of transportation that commuters use reflects the time it takes them to get to work. In 1992, those who walked all the way spent the least time commuting (an average of 29 minutes a day) (Chart D). On the other hand, commuters who took public transportation only, or in combination with a car, had the longest trips, averaging over 90 minutes a day. Car-only commuters spent, on average, a total of 45 minutes travelling to and from work.

Chart C

The car is the dominant mode of transportation for commuters.



Source: General Social Survey, 1992

Women less likely to commute by car

In many respects, the weekday commuting patterns of men and women are similar. For example, there is comparatively little difference in the proportions of male and female workers who were weekday commuters. In 1992, from Monday to Friday, on average, 91% of employed men and 94% of employed women travelled to and from work. Nor did their average time on the road vary substantially: 51 minutes a day for men versus 45 minutes for women.

The major difference in men's and women's commuting patterns was the means of transportation they used. Men were more likely than women to travel by car only: 74% versus 64%. Walking was involved in 27% of women's commutes, compared with 18% of men's. Similarly, 13% of female commuters used public transportation, whereas the comparable figure for men was 8%.

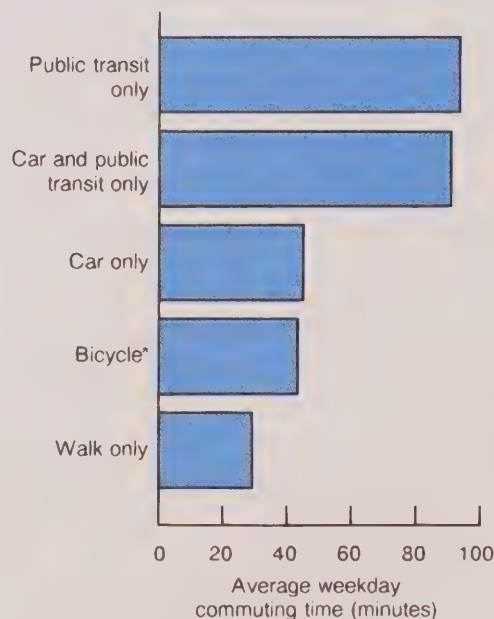
An hour a day for Toronto and Vancouver

Commuting times vary in different metropolitan areas.⁶ In 1992, Toronto and Vancouver residents had the longest daily commutes, averaging 60 minutes. In fact, 16% of Vancouver commuters spent more than 90 minutes a day travelling to and from work (Table). On the other hand, Halifax commuters spent an average of just 38 minutes a day on the road, and only a negligible proportion of them averaged more than 90 minutes.

Daily commuting time was also relatively long in Montreal (54 minutes), and Ottawa-Hull and Winnipeg (both 51 minutes). By contrast, travel to and from

Chart D

Commuting time varies with the mode of travel.



Source: General Social Survey, 1992

* Includes "bicycle and other."

Commuting in selected census metropolitan areas, 1992

	Average number of weekday commuters	Average duration of weekday commute	Proportion* of commuters reporting:		
			Car only	Walking all or part way	Public transit, all or part way
	'000	minutes		%	
Halifax	109	38	71	25	--
Quebec City	219	45	72	22	--
Montreal	1,056	54	63	25	18
Ottawa-Hull	469	51	60	33	16
Toronto	1,638	59	61	24	20
Hamilton	185	44	62	35	--
Winnipeg	222	51	73	16	15
Calgary	298	45	72	21	12
Edmonton	326	43	75	14	--
Vancouver	585	60	72	20	12

Source: General Social Survey

* Because many commuters use multiple modes of transportation, percentages add to more than 100 (see note 5).

work consumed 45 minutes or less, on average, for commuters in Quebec City, Calgary, Hamilton and Edmonton.

Modes of transportation also differ in the various metropolitan areas. Exclusive use of automobiles was most common in Edmonton, where this mode was chosen by 75% of commuters. As well, 70% or more of commuters in Halifax, Quebec City, Winnipeg, Calgary, and Vancouver relied solely on the car. By comparison, just 60% of Ottawa-Hull commuters, and 61% of those in Toronto, depended only on automobile transportation.

More than 30% of commuters in Ottawa-Hull and Hamilton walked for all or part of their journey. In Edmonton and Winnipeg, walking factored in only 14% and 16% of commutes, respectively. Use of public transit was relatively high in Toronto (20%) and Montreal (18%).

Rural differences

Almost one in six workers living in rural areas did not commute in 1992. This reflects

the relatively large percentage of rural residents who are self-employed and work at home, notably in agriculture (Crompton, 1993). However, rural workers who did commute were more likely than urban dwellers to use a car as their only means of getting to work (78% compared with 67%). Not surprisingly, the proportion of rural commuters taking public transportation was very small (less than 2%), although such facilities were used by 12% of urban commuters.

Summary

Employment and commuting go hand in hand. On weekdays, nine out of ten workers travel to their job, and most of them get there by car. Commuting time averages three-quarters of an hour, but varies with the means of transportation. While flexitime and staggered hours supposedly ease congestion, this is probably not evident to the millions of commuters who venture into rush-hour traffic on a daily basis. □

The author wishes to thank Richard Hinchcliff, Director, Statistics and Forecasts, Transport Canada and Bill Raney, Manager, Transportation Costing and

Productivity Office, Ontario Ministry of Transportation for their valuable comments and suggestions in reviewing this article.

Notes

¹ The 1992 General Social Survey (GSS) collected time use data over 12 months from a random sample of about 9,000 respondents aged 15 and older. Each respondent completed a diary of activities over a 24-hour day, recording for each primary activity the start and end times, the place where the activity occurred, and the person(s) the respondent was with during that activity. (Survey respondents were not expected to report activities that took only a few minutes.) Commuting data were derived from reports of travel to and from work.

Full-time residents of institutions and residents of the Yukon and the Northwest Territories were excluded from the survey. For further information, contact Ghislaine Villeneuve at (613) 951-4995.

² For this article, the employed population consists of all persons who were employed on the diary day, that is, the day for which they recorded their activities. Unless otherwise stated, the data refer to weekday commuting.

³ To determine "rush hours," start times for morning and evening commutes had to be chosen arbitrarily. Morning start times for the trip to work could range from 4:00 to 11:59 a.m.; evening commutes for the trip home could start as early as 2:00 p.m. or as late as 9:59 p.m.

About 1.2 million workers in the morning and 3.0 million in the evening travelled outside the typical start-time intervals. These workers were excluded from calculations of morning and evening commutes. Some of them may be shift workers whose commuting does not

fall into the standard morning and evening travel times. As well, the large number not reporting a start time for their evening commute reflects the fact that many people do not go directly home after work. Thus, their evening travel time would have been reported not as commuting, but as travel to and from shopping, entertainment, socializing, etc.

⁴ From 1976 to 1984, Statistics Canada conducted the Travel to Work Survey as a supplement to the November Labour Force Survey. The 1984 picture of commuting was similar to that in 1992. For more information about this survey, contact Mike Sivy, Special Surveys Group (613) 951-4598.

⁵ Just over three-quarters (76%) of the commuting population used a single method of travel. However, a substantial minority of commuters (one in four) used multiple methods. Therefore, the proportions using individual methods add to more than 100%.

⁶ These commuting times and modes refer only to people who lived within metropolitan areas in 1992; that is, the many workers who lived outside metropolitan boundaries and travelled downtown to their job are excluded. From the General Social Survey, it is not possible to determine how many people had such commuting patterns. Estimates, however, can be derived from census data. For more information, call Richard Nadwodny (613) 951-3950.

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Left behind: Lone mothers in the labour market

Susan Crompton

Mothers with children under the age of six have become increasingly active in the labour market during the last two decades. But the sheer number of married mothers masks the precarious labour force situation of lone mothers.

In recent years, the proportion of married mothers employed outside the home has been almost twice as high as that of lone mothers. But this has not always been the case. Until 1981, lone mothers with preschoolers were more active in the job market. So why have lone mothers fallen so far behind wives? This article examines the stagnant employment situation of lone mothers in terms of their marital status, that is, whether they are separated or divorced, or have never married.¹ It focusses on women whose youngest child is under the age of six, since it is these mothers whose level of employment has changed most dramatically since the 1970s (see *Data sources and definitions*).

Lone mothers' employment stagnant while married mothers' doubles

The number of lone mothers with at least one child under the age of six has more than

doubled in the last two decades – up from 96,000 in 1976 to 228,000 in 1993. Meanwhile, the number of wives with young children has remained comparatively stable at about 1.4 million. In 1993, 14% of all women with preschoolers were raising their children alone, compared with 6% in 1976. However, lone mothers' share of employment has not kept pace with their growing share of the population; throughout the period, they never accounted for more than 9% of all working women with preschoolers.

In 1993, 60% of married women with children under six were employed, a percentage almost twice as high as in 1976. By contrast, only 26% of never-married lone mothers had a job in 1993, down from 1976. And the corresponding proportion for separated or divorced mothers was only marginally higher, at 44% (Chart A).

However, looking only at the beginning and end years of the period can be misleading. The employment/population ratio (employment rate) of married mothers grew quickly and steadily, whereas gains made in one or two years by lone mothers were often offset by losses in subsequent years. These volatile movements mirrored general economic conditions, suggesting that lone mothers – for reasons discussed below – are more vulnerable than wives to the vicissitudes of economic downturns.

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Data sources and definitions

This article uses annual average data from the monthly Labour Force Survey (LFS) for the years 1976 to 1993. With the exception of the brief paragraph on mothers with school-age children, the data apply exclusively to mothers whose youngest child is under the age of six.

The LFS data are complemented by information from the Survey of Persons Not in the Labour Force (NLF), a supplement to the November 1992 LFS, conducted to learn more about people who are not in the job market. Women made up the vast majority of Canadians aged 15 to 49 who were neither in the labour force nor attending school; most of these women cited caring for children and homemaking as their main activities. NLF data cover variables such as the current non-labour market activities, education and job plans of youths neither working nor attending school, and the reasons for the early retirement of older workers. (Survey highlights were published in the April 1993 issue of *The Labour Force*, Catalogue 71-001. For more information about the Survey of Persons Not in the Labour Force, call Mike Sivy in Special Surveys Group, Household Surveys Division, at (613) 951-4598.)

Lone mother: the female head of a family in which no spouse is present. Marital status is self-assessed, meaning that respondents' definitions of their marital situation are accepted as fact, regardless of their standing in law. Therefore, "married" respondents may include common-law as well as legally married couples; similarly, "never-married" and "separated or divorced" respondents may include those who have previously lived in common-law unions.

Child under 6: the youngest child in the family is less than 6 years old; other children in the family, if any, may be older.

Child aged 6 to 15: the youngest child in the family is between 6 and 15 years old.

Postsecondary completion: having obtained a certificate or diploma from a community college, junior college, CEGEP, or trade/vocational school, or a university degree, certificate or diploma.

Employment rate: the percentage of people in a specified population who are employed. The employment rate is also known as the employment/population ratio.

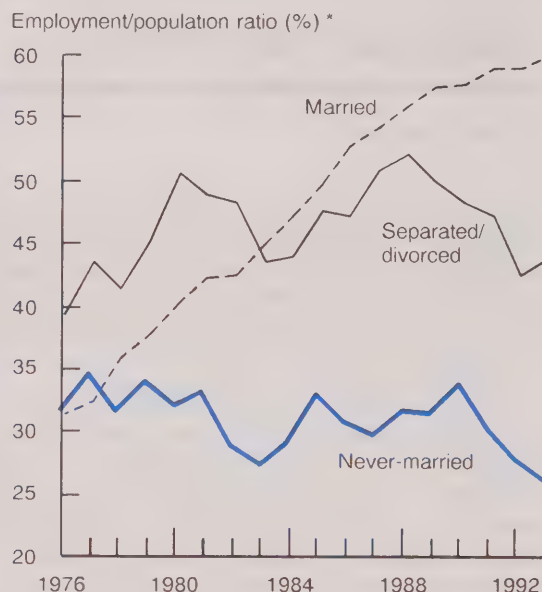
Work experience: currently employed or employed within the last five years if not currently working.

Work experience of wives exceeds that of lone mothers

The vulnerability of lone mothers is reflected in their most recent work experience, that is,

Chart A

Never-married mothers are the least likely to be employed.



Source: Labour Force Survey
* Of mothers with preschoolers.

whether they are currently employed or have been employed within the previous five years. Until the early 1980s, lone mothers were more likely to have a recent work history than married mothers, but the subsequent influx of wives into the job market significantly increased this group's work experience (Chart B). By 1993, 87% of married mothers had recent work experience, compared with 81% of separated or divorced mothers and 78% of those who had never married.

Furthermore, the proportion of married mothers who had never worked fell steadily to reach 3% in 1993, while those who had last worked more than five years before dropped by half, from 19% to 9%. Separated or divorced mothers also recorded declines, but these were not as sharp. On the other hand, in 1993, 10% of never-married lone mothers had never worked, and 12% had not worked for more than five years.

Chart B

Married mothers are now the most likely to have recent work experience.



Source: Labour Force Survey

* Mothers with preschoolers who were employed at the time of the survey or had worked within the previous five years.

Married mothers were also more likely to have better-paid jobs. In 1993, 30% of married mothers with recent employment experience worked in managerial, administrative or professional occupations, compared with 20% of separated or divorced and 14% of never-married mothers.²

Another important element of work experience is seniority because it tends to confer job security. Throughout the period, married mothers were much more likely to have over five years of experience with the same employer; for instance, in 1993, 44% of wives had more than five years' job tenure compared with 32% of lone mothers. However, average job tenure improved considerably for all mothers. It increased by more than one-half for married mothers, from an average of 3.6 years in 1976 to 5.6 years in

1993, and doubled for lone mothers, from 2.3 to 4.6 years.

Never-married mothers are younger than other mothers

Lone mothers with preschoolers, especially those who have never married, may be disadvantaged in the labour market simply because they tend to be younger than married mothers. Since 1976, the average age of all mothers with children under six has increased by two years, but never-married lone mothers have consistently been four or five years younger than other mothers. In 1993, the average age of both married and separated or divorced mothers was 31 years, while that of never-married mothers was 26 years.

And while it is commonly believed that a large share of lone mothers are young women aged 15 to 24, this is not the case. In 1976, 35% of lone mothers were under 25; by 1993, partly due to an aging population, only 28% were in the 15 to 24 age group.

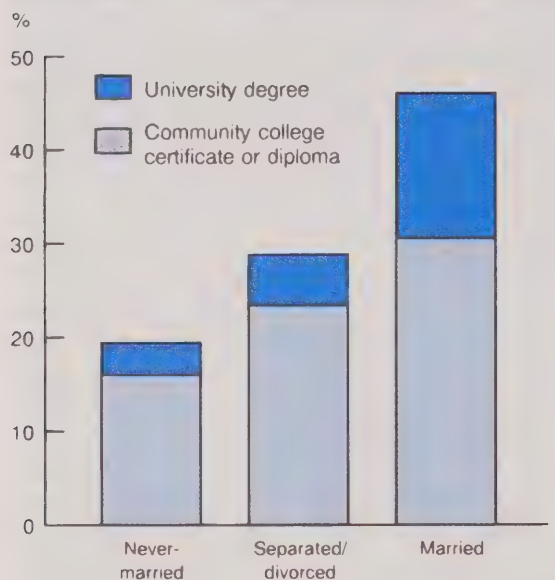
Lone mothers have less education than married mothers

Lack of "higher education" – meaning post-secondary completion³ – could also explain some of the employment disparity between married and lone mothers. At a time when the educational requirements of most jobs are rising, a mother's likelihood of being employed increases with her level of schooling. For example, the employment rate in 1993 for wives with preschoolers was 68% for those with college credentials and 74% for those with a university degree.

However, lone mothers, particularly those who never married, have considerably less education than wives. And although the proportion of all mothers with higher education doubled over the period, mirroring rising levels of schooling in the general population, lone mothers did not catch up with married mothers. By 1993, 19% of never-married mothers with preschoolers

Chart C

Married mothers have the most education*.



Source: Labour Force Survey, 1993
* Mothers with preschoolers.

had a college diploma or university degree, compared with 29% of separated or divorced mothers and 46% of married mothers (Chart C).

Twice as many lone mothers have never married

If the belief that many lone mothers are very young is false, the belief that many have never been married is certainly true. In 1976, one-quarter of lone mothers with preschoolers had never been married; this proportion rose steadily to reach one-half in 1993 (Chart D). Consequently, the proportion of lone mothers (and their children) who now have access to the financial resources often available to divorced women, such as support payments or a share of assets built up during a marriage, has been steadily diminishing⁴

(see *A Snapshot of mothers not in the labour force*).

Compounding this initial financial disadvantage is the steadily growing proportion of never-married lone mothers who now have more children to support. In 1993, 38% of never-married mothers headed a family with two or more children, up from 20% in 1976. In contrast, the proportion of married mothers with two or more children remained stable, at about two-thirds, while it ranged from over half to two-thirds for separated or divorced mothers.

Mothers outside the labour force have less education

Throughout the period, a rapidly shrinking minority of married mothers compared with roughly half of lone mothers remained

Chart D

Since 1976, the proportion of never-married lone mothers with preschoolers has doubled.



Source: Labour Force Survey
* Widowed and married (see Note 1).

A snapshot of mothers not in the labour force

(Data from the Survey of Persons Not in the Labour Force, November 1992)

Plans to look for work

In November 1992, two-thirds of lone mothers not in the labour force intended to look for work some time in the future; however, only 22% of them planned to start a job search within the next 12 months and 37% were unsure when they would begin looking. Married mothers were less likely to plan to get a job outside the home – only half said they intended to look for work. However, 26% of those who did want to enter the labour force planned to start their search in less than a year.

Lone mothers were probably more anxious than wives to find employment because of their financial position. Over half (56%) of stay-at-home never-married lone mothers estimated their 1992 family income at less than \$10,000, while 47% of separated or divorced mothers reported that it was between \$10,000 and \$14,999. In contrast, over half of married mothers (55%) reported family incomes of \$30,000 or more; in fact, 12% had family incomes of \$60,000 or more.

Almost all lone mothers outside the labour force relied on social assistance – 96% of never-married and 94% of separated or divorced mothers received welfare in November 1992.⁵ The only other significant source of income for separated or divorced mothers was the financial support received from family members or "other" sources (alimony, inheritance, estate). On the other hand, over two-thirds (68%) of married mothers were supported financially by their husbands, and 16% received social assistance. Almost one in seven (15%) were drawing Unemployment Insurance benefits or Workers' Compensation, a source unheard of among lone mothers.⁶

Plans to return to school among mothers aged 15 to 24

In November 1992, 52% of lone mothers and 43% of wives aged 15 to 24 with a child under six had last attended school some time in the previous four years (between 1989 and 1992). Over half (54%) of these lone mothers planned to return to school, although the majority had no definite return date in mind. In contrast, only one-third (35%) of the wives intended to continue their education.

outside the labour force. Part of the reason for this may be that all mothers staying at home were less able to find jobs since they were much less likely to have postsecondary completion. In 1993, only 12% of lone mothers who stayed at home had postsecondary

completion compared with 39% of those who were in the labour force. Stay-at-home wives were not as educated as their counterparts in the labour force either, although they were far more likely than lone mothers to have college or university qualifications.

Employment prospects improve when children are older

The employment situation of lone mothers whose youngest child is aged 6 to 15 presents a considerable improvement over that of lone mothers with preschoolers. (In fact, until 1986, divorced mothers with school-age children were more likely than married mothers to hold a job.) Both never-married and separated or divorced mothers were much more likely to be employed if their children were older, although the gap between these two groups widened over time as the position of never-married lone mothers stagnated.

Conclusion

The stagnating employment situation of lone mothers is not for lack of willingness to work. Many lone mothers currently outside the labour force want to work; those who are working are more likely than wives to be employed full time, and a substantial proportion of those working part time would rather have full-time jobs. However, wives are older and better educated and have more work experience. Moreover, having another adult to help with child-care arrangements can only make it easier for married mothers to look for and retain a job. Faced with competition from a large pool of better-educated women (married mothers with preschoolers outnumbered lone mothers six to one in 1993), it is not surprising that many lone mothers have difficulty establishing themselves in the job market.

But a "hierarchy of success" can also be found in the population of lone mothers. Separated or divorced mothers are "ex-

wives" who occupy a more advantageous position in the labour market than never-married women because they have more education and more work experience. Much of the labour market disadvantage of never-married lone mothers may be attributable to their lower educational attainment, which raises the question of whether pregnancy outside marriage increases the likelihood of interrupting formal education and delaying the acquisition of work experience. It is

certainly clear that two distinct types of women, with considerably different demographic and socioeconomic characteristics, are merged under the general rubric "lone mother." It seems a disservice to both groups of mothers to ignore the differences between them. □



1994 International Year of the Family

Notes

¹ Lone mothers who were widowed or "married" (husband absent, for example, in prison, or the wife choosing not to describe herself as separated) accounted for such a small and declining proportion of the population – only 18% (17,000) in 1976 and less than 8% (also 17,000) by 1993 – that they are excluded from the discussion. However, overall totals include all lone mothers, regardless of marital status.

² The employment increase in managerial and administrative occupations over the period is partly attributable to the switch from the 1970 to the 1980 Standard Occupational Classification (SOC) undertaken by the Labour Force Survey in 1984. The 1980 SOC defines the managerial function much more broadly than its predecessor; therefore, workers who were classified as managers and administrators using the 1980 SOC might have been classified differently had the 1970 SOC been used instead.

³ Postsecondary training or education appears to be essential for finding well-paid employment (Gilbert, 1993), therefore, this study defines higher education as college or university graduation. The Labour Force Survey educational category "at least some post-secondary education" is excluded from consideration because the amount of time spent in a postsecondary program – whether one week of an introductory course or one week short of program completion – cannot be determined.

⁴ Galarneau (1992) shows how important support payments are to lone-parent families with children under 18. The per capita income of lone-parent families receiving support payments exceeded that of families without support by 45% to 56%, depending on the number of children in the family. Galarneau also calculated that, in 1988, support payments accounted for 19% of the average income of lone-parent families with dependent children, a percentage which increased with the number of children in the family.

⁵ The November 1992 Survey of Persons Not in the Labour Force showed that dependence on social assistance did not decline for stay-at-home never-married lone mothers with older children: 95% with no preschoolers but at least one child aged 6 to 15 relied on welfare as a source of income, compared with 74% of separated or divorced mothers with children the same age.

⁶ Because it is not possible to separately identify UI and Worker's Compensation benefits, it cannot be determined how many wives might have been drawing disability benefits. And many married mothers with income from Unemployment Insurance were probably on maternity leave.

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Who gets UI?

André Picard

In 1940, Canada introduced an income-support program for job-losers known as the Unemployment Insurance program or UI. While initially the UI program covered slightly more than 40% of workers, over the years coverage was extended. Since the major revision of the UI Act in 1971, the program has covered virtually all employees.

During the last two decades, the UI program has played an important role as a temporary income substitute for persons who are out of work because of layoff or other reasons. UI becomes particularly important during periods of recession, when the number of layoffs increases substantially. During the last two recessions (1981-82 and 1990-92), the number of beneficiaries soared.

This article looks at the changing profile of regular Unemployment Insurance beneficiaries (see *Data source and definitions*) during the past decade, with particular focus on their occupation. The 1980-83 and 1989-92 periods are closely examined in order to evaluate the impact of the last two recessions on the number of beneficiaries.

The number of beneficiaries rises during a recession ...

In 1992, more than 1.1 million individuals, on average, received Unemployment Insurance benefits.¹ This level, only slightly

below the 1991 record high, exceeded the previous peak registered in 1983. However, the proportion of beneficiaries relative to the total labour force² continued to be lower in 1992 (8.3%) than it was in 1983 (9.2%); similarly, the unemployment rate in 1992 (11.3%) compared favourably with that in 1983 (11.8%).

Between 1989, the year preceding the recession, and 1992, its end, the number of beneficiaries rose by 29%. This increase was much smaller than the 85% rise that occurred in the 1980-83 period. However, despite several years of economic growth during the 1980s, the number of beneficiaries in 1989 was 47% higher than it was before the 1981-82 recession; during this same period, the labour force increased by only 17%.

... and men are more affected than women

Between 1989 and 1992, the relative increase in the number of beneficiaries was much greater among men than among women: 39% (to 682,000) versus 17% (to 466,000) (Chart A). In contrast, between 1980 and 1983, the difference was not as large (89% versus 80%).

During the following years of economic expansion, the decrease in female beneficiaries was much smaller than it was for males. This is, in part, due to the substantial number of women who entered the labour market during the 1980s, thereby

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Data source and definitions

Data on Unemployment Insurance beneficiaries are administrative data provided by Human Resources Development (formerly Employment and Immigration Canada). The count of beneficiaries is based on the number of people receiving benefits during a specific week in the month.

Some important changes were made to the Unemployment Insurance program in 1990 including, among others, the modification of benefit eligibility rules. For example, effective November 1990, individuals have to work 10 to 20 weeks, depending on the unemployment rate in their region, instead of 10 to 14 weeks as was the case previously.

This study deals only with those beneficiaries who received regular benefits, that is, persons who experienced an interruption in earnings but who were ready and able to work. These accounted for 83% of all beneficiaries in 1992. Beneficiaries receiving special benefits, for example, sickness or maternity benefits, are excluded.

The definition used for recipients of regular benefits is similar to the concept used by the Labour Force Survey to estimate the unemployed. It is important to note that although there are some similarities between the concepts of "Unemployment Insurance beneficiaries" and the "unemployed," there are also some important differences. For example, a recipient of regular benefits must have a minimum number of weeks of insurable employment and a minimum level of insurable earnings. He must be ready and able to work, and may receive benefits for up to 50 weeks only. An unemployed person, on the other hand, will be classified as such as long as he or she is ready to work and is seeking work.

For further details concerning the concepts related to Unemployment Insurance beneficiaries and the unemployed, see *Unemployment Insurance Statistics, Annual Supplement*, Catalogue 73-202S and *The Labour Force*, Catalogue 71-001.

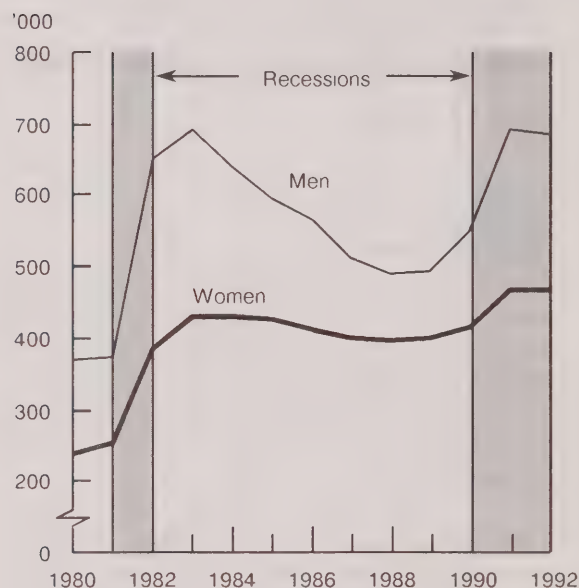
increasing the population of women covered by the UI program. In fact, over this decade, women's share of the labour force increased by more than four percentage points, to 44.3%, while their participation rate³ grew from 50.4% to 57.9%. In contrast, men's participation rate declined slightly from 78.4% to 76.7%.

The impact of a recession varies by age

Although more than one-half of the beneficiaries were between the ages of 25 and 44,

Chart A

The number of beneficiaries* increases during recessions.



Source: Labour Division, *Unemployment Insurance statistics*

* Receiving regular benefits.

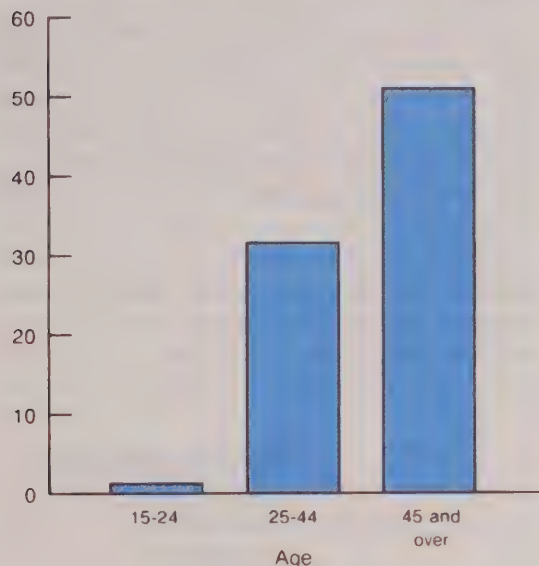
those 45 and older registered the sharpest proportional rise between 1989 and 1992 (Chart B). This age group also experienced the largest increase in the length of unemployment during these years (Corak, 1993 and Dumas, 1994).

The number of beneficiaries in the 15 to 24 age group (youths) increased slightly in 1991 and then declined in 1992 to a level approaching the 1989 trough. This might be explained by the fact that during the recession many young people withdrew from the labour force, and a fair number of them decided to return to or pursue their studies. Indeed, between 1989 and 1992, the labour force participation rate of youths shrank by more than five percentage points, to 65.1% while the number of full-time students continued to increase (Sunter, 1994).

Chart B

During the recent recession, the number of older beneficiaries* rose significantly.

% change between 1989 and 1992



Source: Labour Division, Unemployment Insurance statistics

* Receiving regular benefits.

In the early 1980s, the number of beneficiaries aged 15 to 24 accounted for close to one-third of the total, compared with less than one-fifth in 1992. However, youths' share of the population aged 15 and over had fallen significantly as well, from 25% in 1980 to 18% in 1992. The aging of the population also explains why beneficiaries aged 25 to 44 were more prominent during the 1980s.

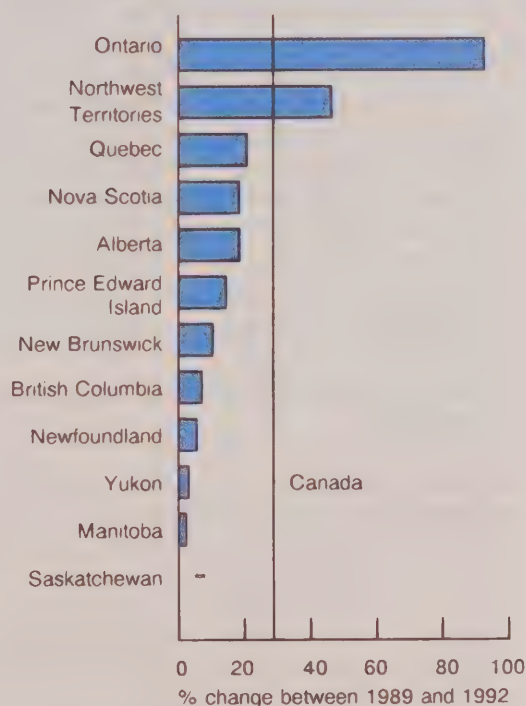
Ontario hard hit by recession

In 1989, Ontario's economy was booming with an unemployment rate (5.1%) well below the rate in other provinces. However, during the last recession, this province experienced by far the largest increase in the number of UI beneficiaries (Chart C). More

than 155,000 additional beneficiaries were recorded in Ontario between 1989 and 1992, representing close to 60% of the total increase in Canada during that period. Not surprisingly, this rise corresponds to the many jobs lost in this province in 1990 and 1991. Despite the substantial increase, the number of beneficiaries in this province in 1992 was still lower than in Quebec. Thus Ontario, with 38% of the national labour force, accounted for only 28% of UI beneficiaries in 1992 while Quebec, with 25% of the labour force, made up 32% of all beneficiaries.

Chart C

Between 1989 and 1992, Ontario experienced the highest percentage increase in the number of beneficiaries.*



Source: Labour Division, Unemployment Insurance statistics

* Receiving regular benefits.

** The estimate is too small to be shown.

Elsewhere in the country, the number of beneficiaries registered a moderate increase between 1989 and 1992 (with the exception of the Northwest Territories). In the Atlantic provinces, the increases were less than 20%. However, during the economic expansion of the 1980s, the number of beneficiaries declined very little. The importance of the fishing industry in this region and its seasonal nature could, in part, explain the slight fluctuations in the number of beneficiaries throughout the business cycle.

Among the Prairie provinces, Alberta recorded the largest increase in the number of beneficiaries during the last recession (18%). However, this rise pales in comparison with that of the early 1980s when the increase in the number of beneficiaries was more than 500%. Because of the importance of the oil sector in this province, the drop in oil prices in 1979 had a greater impact on Alberta's economy than it did elsewhere.

UI beneficiaries in British Columbia rose only slightly between 1989 and 1992. In fact, the recession was hardly felt in this province, the only one to experience yearly employment gains from 1989 onwards. This economic performance mirrors British Columbia's net increase in interprovincial and international migration in recent years.

White-collar workers⁴ were not spared ...

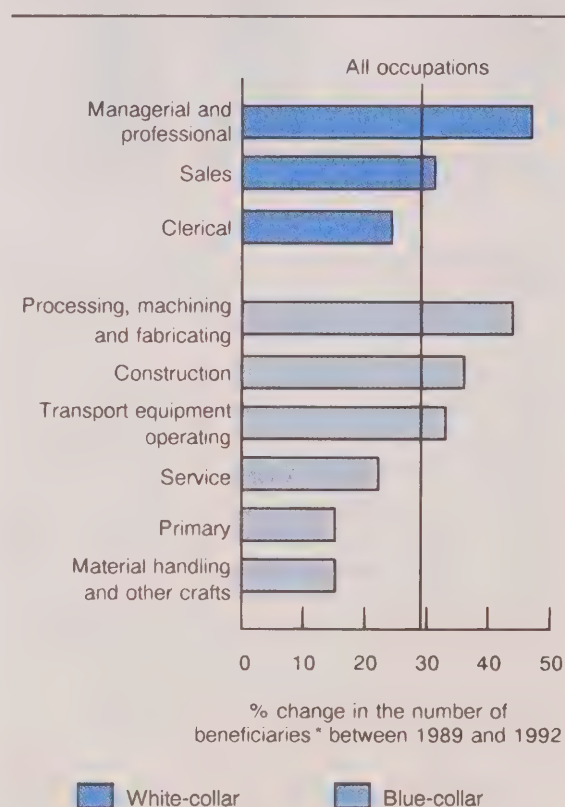
Between 1989 and 1992,⁵ the number of white-collar workers receiving UI benefits grew by 33% compared with a 31% rise among blue-collar workers. (This appears to contradict the popular belief that white-collar workers are spared in economic downturns.) However, these increases did not occur in tandem. Among blue-collar workers, most of the rise occurred at the beginning of the recession, with the number of beneficiaries peaking in 1991 and subsequently

declining. Among white-collar workers, the number of beneficiaries increased more slowly but continued to rise throughout 1992. This pattern reflects the nature of the last recession which started with job losses in manufacturing and construction, followed by losses in some parts of the service sector.

Among white-collar beneficiaries, those who were last employed in managerial and professional positions suffered the most (Chart D). The restructuring by large firms to eliminate middle-management positions in recent years may partly explain this trend.

Chart D

Both white- and blue-collar workers were affected by the recent recession.



Source: Labour Division, Unemployment Insurance statistics

* Receiving regular benefits.

Although Ontario experienced the most substantial increase, Quebec continued to have the highest number of beneficiaries in this occupational category.

The increase in UI beneficiaries among clerical workers also coincides with this group's employment decline in 1992. In sales, the number of beneficiaries also grew substantially as a result of job losses in retail trade in 1991.

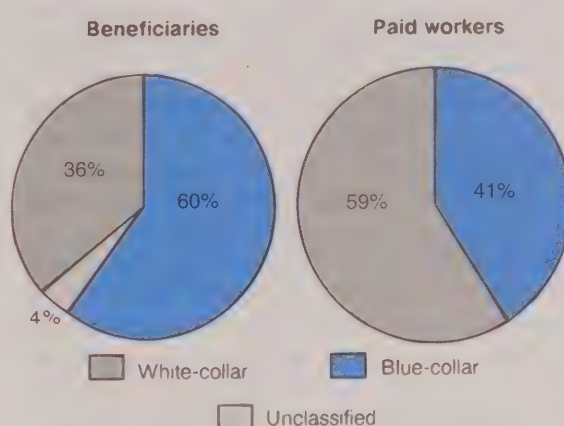
Among blue-collar workers, those last employed in processing, machining and fabricating occupations registered the sharpest increases during the recent recession. In Ontario, where almost half of Canada's manufacturing employment is located, the number of beneficiaries nearly doubled. Workers in construction and transportation occupations also experienced significant increases.

... but blue-collar workers were more likely to be UI recipients

Although between 1989 and 1992 blue-collar workers on average accounted for only 41% of all paid workers⁶, they made up 60% of UI beneficiaries (Chart E). This overrepresentation of beneficiaries was found in most

Chart E

On average, blue-collar workers were overrepresented among beneficiaries.*



Sources: Labour Division, Unemployment Insurance statistics and Labour Force Survey

* 1989-1992 average.

major blue-collar occupational groups in both 1992 and 1989 (Table). It was highest in construction, where the share of beneficiaries was almost three times that of paid workers. This could be explained by the seasonal nature of the construction industry in Canada.

Paid workers and Unemployment Insurance beneficiaries by occupation, 1989 and 1992

	1989		1992	
	Paid workers	Beneficiaries	Paid workers	Beneficiaries
All occupations ('000)	11,309	889	10,993	1,148
	%			
Managerial and professional	30.5	12.2	33.5	13.8
Clerical	18.2	17.3	17.7	16.7
Sales	8.7	6.7	9.2	6.8
Service	12.7	11.5	13.0	10.9
Primary occupations	2.5	6.3	2.6	5.6
Processing, machining and fabricating	14.3	14.1	12.2	15.7
Construction trades	5.5	15.9	4.7	16.7
Transport equipment operating	3.7	4.5	3.6	4.6
Material handling and other crafts	3.8	6.3	3.6	5.6
Unclassified	...	5.3	...	3.6

Sources: Labour Division, Unemployment Insurance statistics, and Labour Force Survey

The situation was reversed among white-collar workers where the managerial and professional group's share of total beneficiaries was less than half its proportion of all paid workers. This may be due to the fact that many persons in these occupations provide essential services in the areas of health, education and other social services, where the demand for workers remains strong throughout the economic cycle. In addition, this group's educational level was the highest of all occupations (40% had a university degree in 1992), a fact which reduced the likelihood of unemployment (only 3% of blue-collar workers had a university degree). In 1992, for example, the unemployment rate among managers and professionals was 5.9% compared with 14.5% among blue-collar workers.

The shares of both beneficiaries and paid workers were similar in clerical occupations. On the other hand, sales occupations recorded proportionally fewer beneficiaries, perhaps because a higher share of these persons work part time and might therefore be ineligible for UI benefits.

Summary

Like most labour market indicators, the number of Unemployment Insurance beneficiaries fluctuates with the economic cycle.

However, during the last decade, this number has remained high despite several years of economic growth. Nevertheless, the rise in the number of beneficiaries during the 1990-92 recession was much smaller than it was during the recession of the early 1980s: 29% and 85% respectively.

This increase, between 1989 and 1992, was particularly high among men, persons aged 45 and over, and those living in Ontario. Contrary to public opinion, white-collar workers were also affected by the recession, as the number of both white- and blue-collar beneficiaries rose in similar proportions (33% and 31% respectively).

At the end of the expansionary cycle of the 1980s, the number of beneficiaries remained close to 50% higher than it had been before the 1981-82 recession, although the labour force had grown by only 17%. But, this time around will the number of beneficiaries drop to a level similar to that preceding the 1990-92 recession, given that preliminary data for 1993 show a slight decline? □

The author wishes to thank Manon Nadeau for her contribution to an earlier draft of this study and George Jackson and Marcel Bédard from Human Resources Development for their valuable comments and suggestions in reviewing this article.

Notes

¹ The figures and percentages in this article are 12-month averages for the reference year.

² The concept of the labour force is used in this article to estimate the population covered by Unemployment Insurance. The labour force includes members of the non-institutionalized civilian population aged 15 and over who had a job or were unemployed during the reference week of each month.

³ The participation rate is defined as the number of people working or looking for work expressed as a percentage of the population aged 15 and over.

⁴ White-collar workers have managerial, professional, clerical, or sales occupations; blue-collar refers to all other occupational groups.

⁵ Data on Unemployment Insurance beneficiaries by occupation have been available only since 1984, when the expansionary cycle was already underway. This analysis will therefore focus on the 1989-92 period.

⁶ Paid workers exclude the self-employed and unpaid family workers who are not covered by the UI program.

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Declining female labour force participation

Penny Basset

In 1991, for the first time in nearly four decades, the participation rate of women in the labour force reversed its previous course and began to decline. This drop, however small or brief it may prove to be, breaks one of the longest and most important trends in the Canadian labour market.

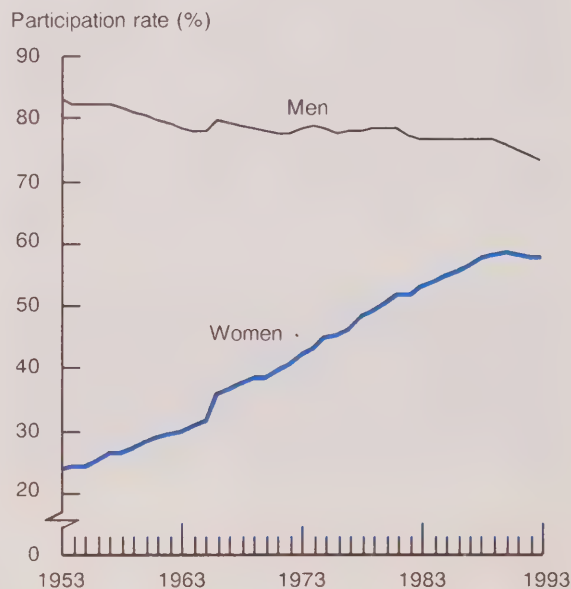
This article looks at the overall trends in the labour force participation rates of both men and women between 1953 and 1993 and the main factors contributing to these trends. It then examines the recent reversal in the upward trend of women's participation in the light of business cycles with a focus on the last recession and variations among specific age groups.

Long-term trends

The composition of the Canadian labour force by sex, which began to change during the Second World War, has undergone a spectacular transformation over the last four decades (Chart A). In 1953, 82.9% of men were in the labour force, compared with only 23.4% of women. Four decades later, women's participation rate has more than doubled (57.5%) while men's rate has actually declined to 73.4%.¹ Thus, the labour

Chart A

The gap between male and female labour force participation rates has narrowed.



Source: Labour Force Survey

Note: Estimates prior to 1966 are based on persons aged 14 and over; subsequent estimates exclude 14 year-olds.

force participation rates of men and women have been converging over the years, with women playing a much stronger role in this development.

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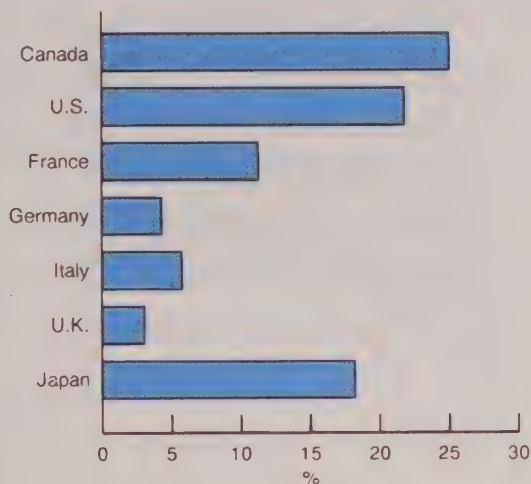
INTERNATIONAL FACTS

Catalogue 75-001E

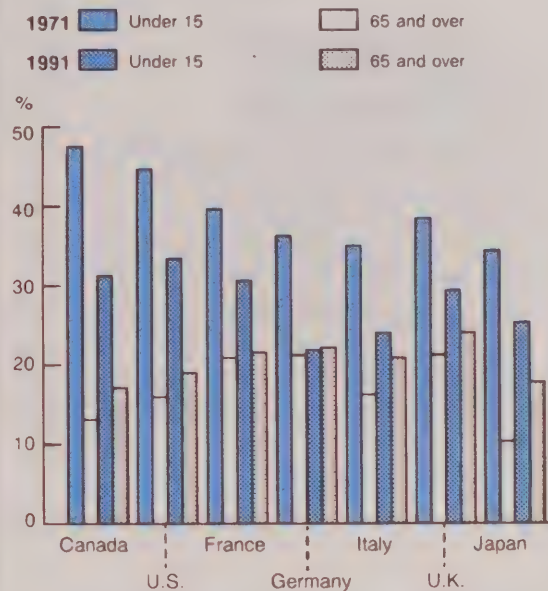
PERSPECTIVES ON LABOUR AND INCOME

Canada's performance relative to other G-7 countries: an overview of selected indicators. (Concepts and definitions are provided on page 4.)

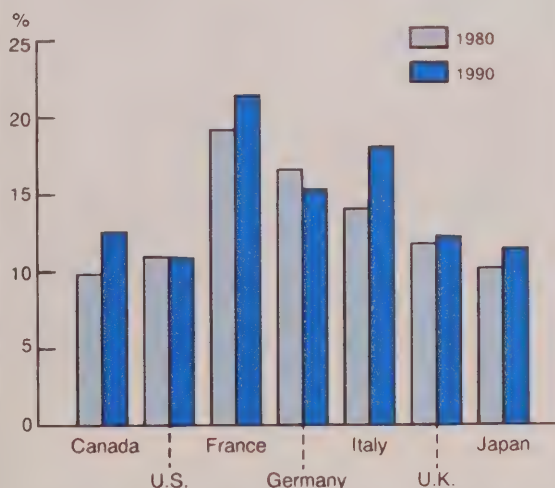
A. Population growth over the 1971-1991 period



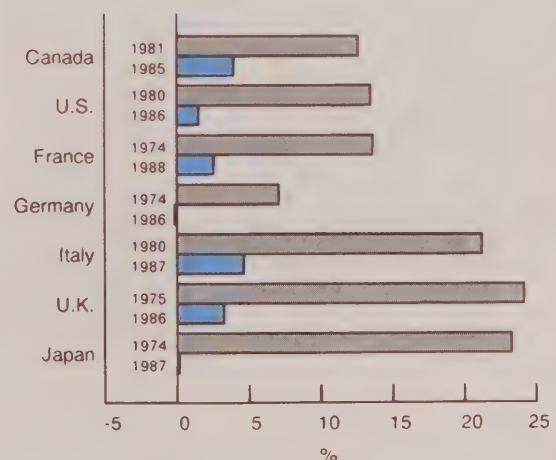
B. Age-dependency ratios



C. Social security transfers as % of GNP

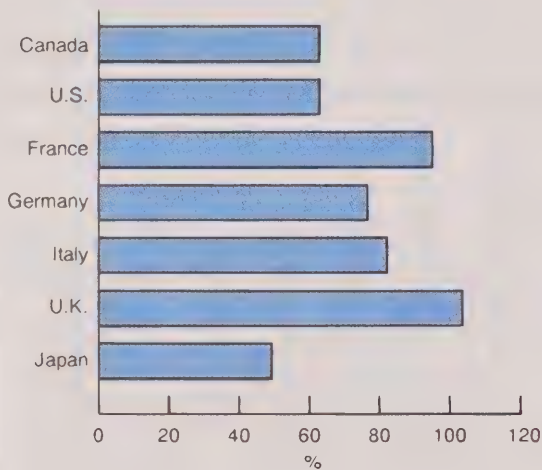


D. Highest and lowest rates of inflation over the 1971-1991 period

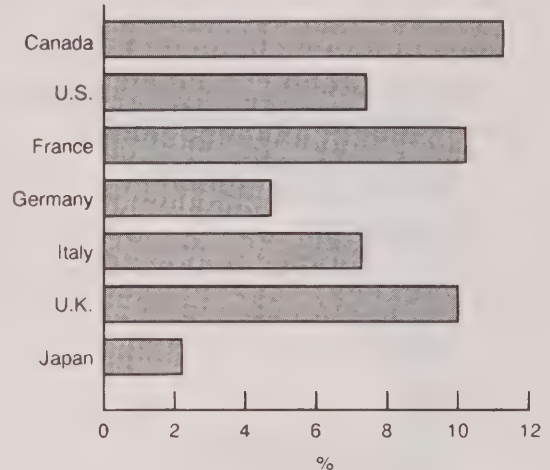


INTERNATIONAL FACTS (continued)

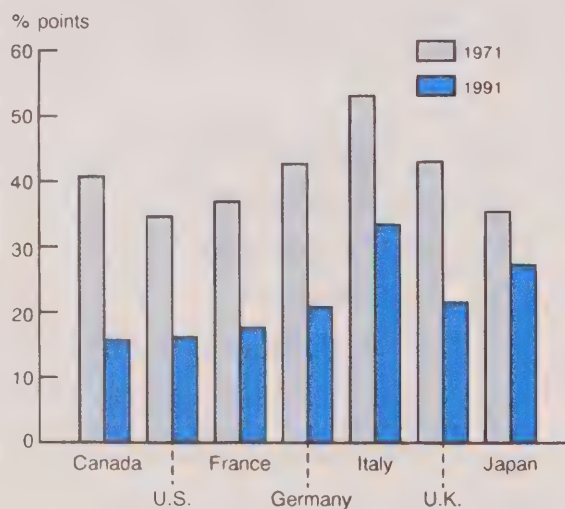
E. Women's share of labour force growth over the 1971-1991 period



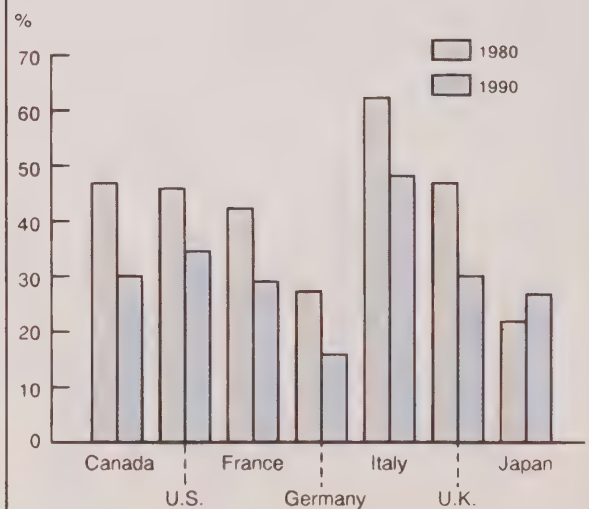
F. Unemployment rate, 1992



G. Gap in participation rates of men and women

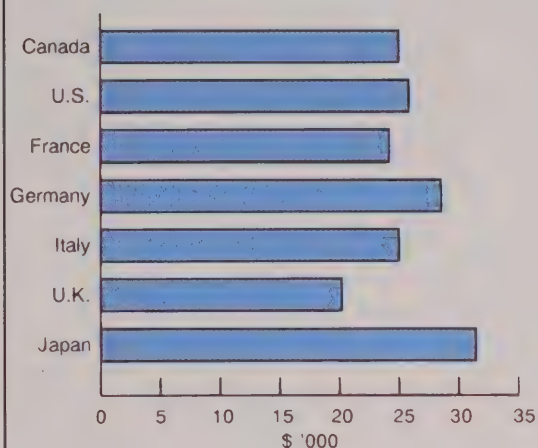


H. Youths' share of total unemployment

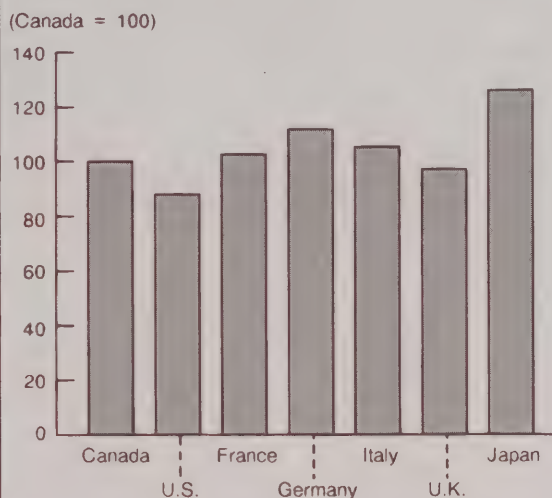


INTERNATIONAL FACTS (continued)

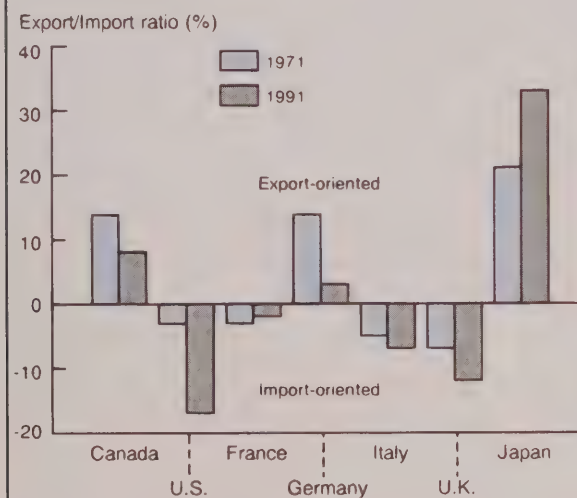
I. Per capita gross domestic product in 1991
(in Canadian dollars, using exchange rates)



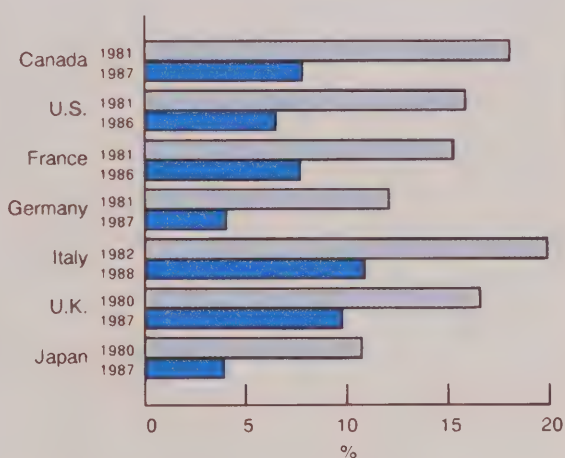
J. Comparative cost of goods & services, 1991



K. International trade situation



L. Highest and lowest short-term interest rates over the 1980-1990 period



INTERNATIONAL FACTS (concluded)

Concepts and definitions

- A. **Population growth:** where P is the mid-year estimate of the population.

$$\left(\frac{P_{91}}{P_{71}} - 1 \right) \times 100$$

- B. **Age-dependency ratio:** the dependent population, defined as persons under 15 or 65 years and over, as a percentage of the 15-64 population. Ratios are shown separately for persons under 15 and for those 65 and over (using the population 15-64 as the common denominator).

- C. **Social security transfers:** benefits for sickness, old age, and family allowances; social assistance grants; and unfunded employee welfare benefits paid by general government.

- D. **Rate of inflation:** the year-to-year change in the Consumer Price Index (CPI) for all items.

- E. **Women's share of labour force growth:** the increase in the number of women in the labour force expressed as a percentage of the increase in the total labour force.

- F. **Unemployment rate:** persons without work who are actively looking and are available for work as a percentage of the total labour force (i.e. civilian and non-civilian).

- G. **Participation rate:** for a given sex group this is the number of persons in the labour force expressed as a percentage of its population aged 15-64 (this is slightly different from the more conventional concept based on the population 15 and over). The gap by sex is in percentage points.

- H. **Youths' share of unemployment:** unemployed persons 15-24 years as a percentage of the total unemployed.

- I. **Per capita gross domestic product:** the amount per person of all goods and services

produced in a country. The values were first derived in national currencies and then converted into Canadian dollars using market exchange rates.

- J. **Comparative cost** (or purchasing power parity): an estimate of the value of a basket of "similar goods and services," taking into account both market exchange rates and relative price levels.

- K. **International trade** (Export-to-import ratios): based on monthly averages.

$$\left(\frac{E}{I} - 1 \right) \times 100$$

- L. **Short-term interest rates (nominal):** monthly averages, usually referring to the interest on a 3-month or 90-day period (not adjusted for inflation).

References:

1. Labour Force Statistics, 1971-1991, OECD. (Charts A,B,E,G)
2. Monthly Labor Review, January 1994 Issue. (Chart F)
3. Historical Statistics, 1960-1990, OECD. (Charts C,H,L)
4. Main Economic Indicators, Selected Years, OECD (Charts D,I,J,K)
5. Bank of Canada Review, Autumn 1993 Issue. (Chart I)

Cautionary note

Although data in these charts are **conceptually** consistent, some differences in the indicators may still be due to differences in sources, collection, processing and editing of data.

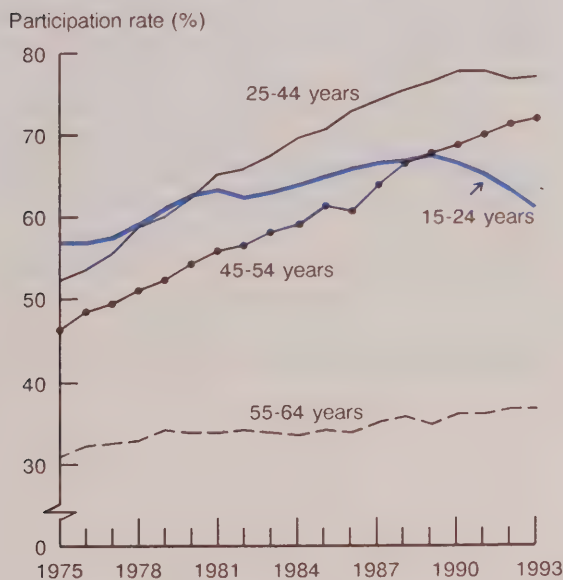
For further information on concepts and definitions, contact Raj Chawla, Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, at (613) 951-6901.

Components of the trend

The downward trend in men's participation rate is primarily due to an increasing tendency towards early retirement, particularly in recent years.² The growth in female participation has occurred among women of all working ages (Chart B) with the core 25 to 54 age group being the main contributor. As women have aged, the rise in participation has moved in a wavelike fashion through the age groups. While women aged 25 to 44 years increased their participation in the labour force most during the mid to late seventies, those aged 45 to 54 were the leading group during the eighties.³ Although the participation rate of young women (15 to 24 years) has been rising on the whole, it has fluctuated over the years. The smallest increase occurred in the case of women aged

Chart B

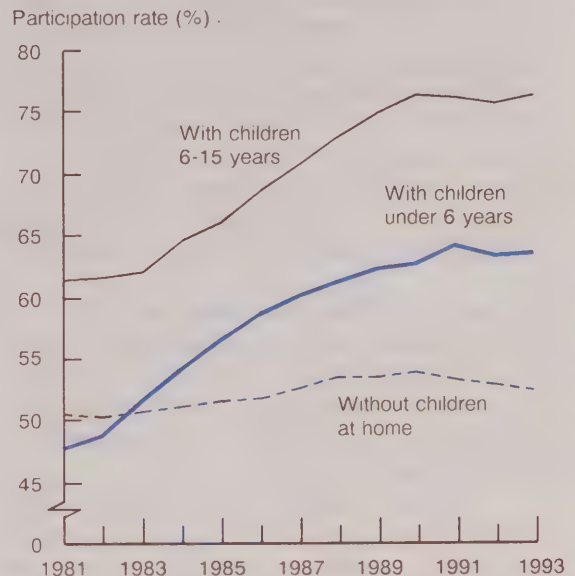
The participation rate of women under 25 has dropped sharply in recent years.



Source: Labour Force Survey

Chart C

Women with children at home have been largely responsible for increased female participation rates.



Source: Labour Force Survey

55 to 64 years – from 30.8% in 1975 to 36.4% in 1993.

Although women from all walks of life contributed to the growth in labour force participation, the most important boost came from the entry of mothers – with children living at home – into the labour force (Chart C).

The impact of the business cycle

While the overall trend in women's labour force participation has been one of continuous growth, the rate of growth has not been uniform. Predictably, women's participation rate increased sharply during periods of economic expansion and slowed down considerably during recessions.

Over the last 30 years, women joined the labour force in great numbers during the first three expansionary periods – 1961 to 1974, 1975 to 1979 and 1980 to 1981 – when women's participation rate increased, on average, 1.1 percentage points each year. However, this trend slackened to an average 0.9 of a percentage point annually during the fourth economic expansion, which started in 1983 and ended in 1989. As expected, during most of the recessionary periods, growth in women's participation slowed down; and in the 1990 to 1992 recession, it actually declined an average 0.4 of a percentage point.

The varying effect of recessions

With respect to women's participation in the labour force, recessions affect all age groups, but not to the same extent. The younger the group, the more the labour force participation declines.

The participation rate of women 15 to 24 years started to decline before the onset of the recent recession, and fell over six percentage points between 1989 and 1993. This sharp drop can mainly be attributed to two factors. First, it appears that, following the rule of "last in, first out," youths are the most likely to lose their job in times of economic downturn. Second, as rising unemployment tends to discourage job search, those completing high school may choose to enter postsecondary studies to improve their prospects later. These factors lead to a further decline in labour force participation (Sunter, 1994). On the other hand, the seniority gained by older women provides greater job security during periods

of economic downturn so their participation rates do not fall or slow down as much.

Indeed, the participation rate of women 25 to 64 years continued to increase in 1990. In 1991, however, participation rose only for the 45 to 54 year-olds, while the remaining three age groups stayed at their 1990 levels. By 1992, the participation rates of the two younger groups (25 to 34 and 35 to 44 year-olds) had fallen as had youths'. As economic activity started to pick up again in 1993, the participation rates of women under 35 continued to decline.

Summary

The small decline in the overall female participation rate between 1990 and 1992 – a break from a long-term trend – appears to have resulted from the recession. Young women suffered most, but this group's participation rate tends to improve when the labour market recovers. Although youths accounted for less than one in five women in the labour force, sharp declines in their participation rate, combined with a slow-down in labour force participation growth among older women, managed to drag down the overall rate.

While the participation rate of women under 45 has fallen recently, the rate for women aged 45 to 54 continues to rise. The participation rate of mothers with children living at home shows even stronger growth. It is, therefore, quite likely that the overall female labour force participation rate will continue its upward movement as the economic recovery gains momentum. □

Notes

¹ The Labour Force Survey changed its population coverage over this period. Estimates prior to 1966 are based on persons aged 14 and over; subsequent estimates exclude 14 year-olds.

² Several important factors give rise to this early retirement phenomenon, including the following: the strengthening of the Canadian social security net through Old Age Security and the Guaranteed Income

Supplement; the increasing incidence and amount of private retirement pensions; the more limited re-employment opportunities for older workers; and the aging of the population. This last component tends to depress the overall labour force participation rate since the older age groups participate less.

³ Many of these women would have been responsible for the rise in participation in the seventies.

Reference

Sunter, D. "Youths - waiting it out." *Perspectives on Labour and Income* (Statistics Canada, Catalogue 75-001E) 6, no. 1 (Spring 1994): 31-36.

Working "9 to 5"

Diane Galarneau

Several articles have recently dealt with non-standard work arrangements such as flextime, weekend work, overtime, shift work, and part-time or temporary employment. However, a majority of paid workers still work a fixed daytime schedule, that is, the standard "9 to 5" day.

For the first time, in 1991, Statistics Canada's Survey of Work Arrangements (SWA) collected data on scheduled hours of work. This note examines the hours and characteristics of full-time paid workers with fixed schedules, particularly those who work during the daytime.

Fixed daytime work schedule

For most of us, working "9 to 5" means having a full-time job with a fixed daytime work schedule. For the purposes of this note, the boundaries have been expanded to include people who start their work day between 6 and 10 a.m. and end it between 2 and 6 p.m.

When we talk about a "fixed" work schedule, we are contrasting it with a "flexible" work schedule. The 1991 SWA asked only individuals with fixed schedules to report their hours of work (see *About the SWA*).

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About the SWA

The Survey of Work Arrangements (SWA) was sponsored by Statistics Canada and conducted in November 1991 as a supplement to the Labour Force Survey. The SWA, which covers only paid workers, provides a considerable amount of information regarding the working conditions of Canadians, such as shift work, flexible work schedules, work at home, temporary employment, paid overtime, and multiple jobholding. A number of articles on this subject have already been published (Akyeampong, Akyeampong and Siroonian, Cohen, Siroonian, Sunter, 1993).

If a respondent reported a fixed work schedule, the following questions were asked:

"At what time does ... usually begin work at this job?"

"At what time does ... usually end work at this job?"

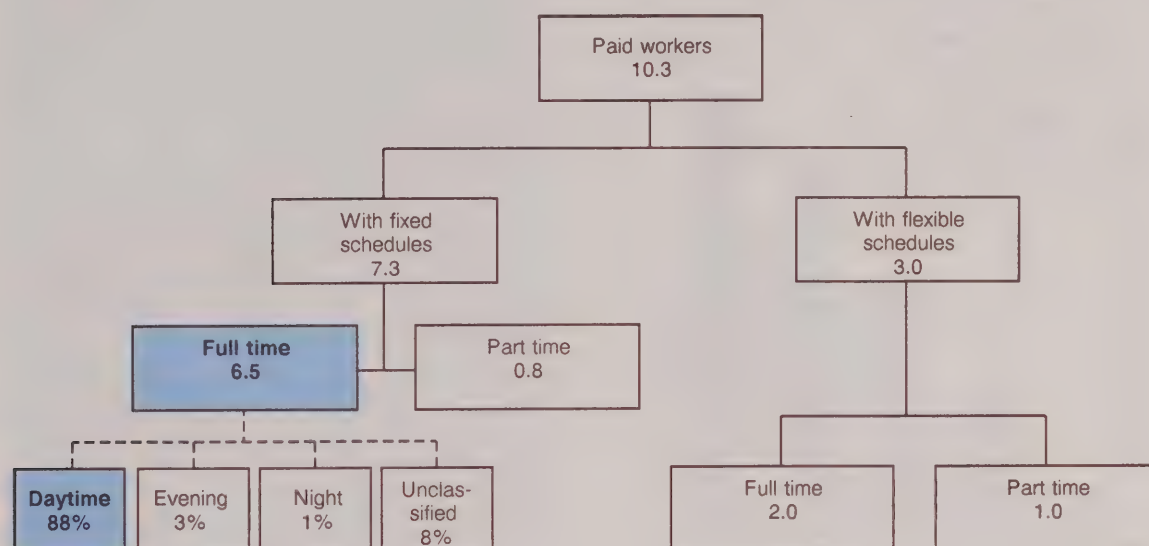
(Respondents with variable work schedules were not asked to report their hours of work.)

Hours of work

Of the 10.3 million paid workers covered by the 1991 SWA, 7.3 million (71%) had fixed work schedules and 3 million had flexible schedules (full-time or part-time). Of the 7.3 million fixed schedule workers, 6.5 million were working full time and nearly 840,000, part time. This note looks exclusively at the 6.5 million full-time paid workers with a fixed work schedule (Diagram).

Of these 6.5 million workers, 88% had a fixed daytime work schedule (Table 1).¹ Many of them (seven out of ten) started work at 8 or 9 a.m. and left work at 4 or 5 p.m.²

Work schedules of paid workers in 1991 (millions of workers)



Source: Survey of Work Arrangements

Table 1
Full-time paid workers with fixed work schedules, 1991

Type of schedule	'000	%
Total	6,458	100
Daytime (6-10 a.m. to 2-6 p.m.)	5,674	88
Non-daytime		
Evening (2-6 p.m. to 10 p.m.-2 a.m.)	226	3
Night (10 p.m.-12 a.m. to 6-8 a.m.)	76	1
Unclassified*	482	7

Source: Survey of Work Arrangements

* Includes workers with schedules overlapping two categories, for example, daytime and evening.

Over 3% of persons with a fixed schedule worked in the evening, approximately 1% worked at night, and 7% fell into none of these three categories since their schedule overlapped two different periods – for example, daytime and evening. (These overlapping schedules were assigned to the unclassified category.) A large portion of this unclassified group is made up of persons who

work long hours at a stretch (10 or 12 hours) or whose schedule is shifted forward or backward a few hours (for example, people who work from 11 a.m. to 7 p.m.).

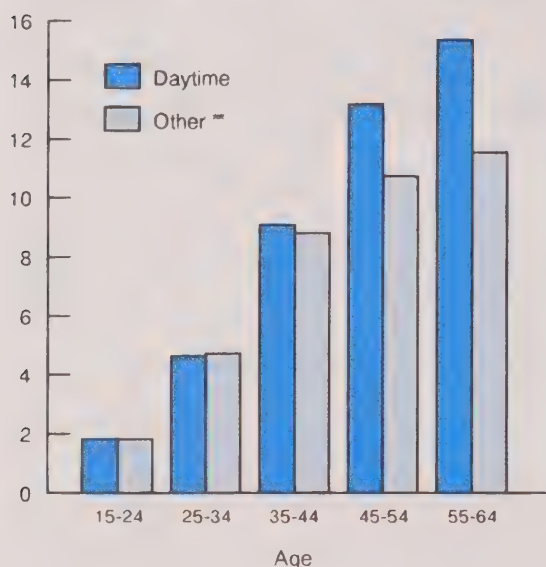
Who adopts a fixed daytime schedule?

The characteristics of full-time paid workers who adopt a fixed daytime schedule differ only slightly from those of fixed non-daytime schedules (that is, evening and night workers and those who do not fall into any of these categories).

Thus, day workers are more likely to be female than are other workers (45% compared with 38%) and they are slightly older (56% are at least 35 years old compared with 51% in the other categories combined). More day workers are married or cohabiting (69% compared with 62% for other workers) and they are somewhat better educated (47% have a postsecondary or university diploma, compared with 38% of other workers).

Fixed daytime schedules seem linked with seniority.

Average years of job tenure *



Source: Survey of Work Arrangements, 1991

* With the same employer.

** Includes evening, night and unclassified schedules.

Workers with a fixed daytime schedule have more seniority on average (8.2 years) than workers with a fixed non-daytime schedule (6.9 years) (Chart). This is not surprising since, often, one of the advantages of having more seniority in a company is being allowed to choose one's schedule. This is the case, for example, for nurses, sales staff, and employees of some manufacturing companies that operate with several shifts.

Occupation and industry

Nearly 60% of day workers were professionals, managers or clerical workers, while only 40% of non-day workers had such occupations (Table 2). However, a higher proportion of these non-day workers were

American data

The United States has been compiling information on work schedules on an irregular basis since 1973. Since 1985, more detailed information has been collected through a supplement to the Current Population Survey (CPS), a monthly survey which provides estimates regarding the labour force and the national unemployment rate.

The data from the May 1991 survey reveal that nearly 77% of full-time paid workers have a day schedule; among these individuals, slightly fewer than half work between 8 or 9 a.m. and 4 or 5 p.m. Evening workers make up 6% of the overall group, night workers account for a negligible share, and persons falling into none of these categories account for 17%.³

Full-time paid workers in the United States by type of schedule, 1991

Type of schedule	'000	%
Total	77,837	100
Daytime (6-10 a.m. to 2-6 p.m.)	59,825	77
Non-daytime		
Evening (2-6 p.m. to 10 p.m.-2 a.m.)	4,548	6
Night (10 p.m.-12 a.m. to 6-8 a.m.)	64	-
Unclassified*	13,400	17

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

* Includes workers with schedules overlapping two categories, for example, daytime and evening.

However, differences between the American and Canadian questionnaires have led to some significant disparities in the two surveys' statistical results. For example, the American survey placed people with flexible work schedules in their most often adopted schedule. In contrast, Statistics Canada's survey assigned such persons to a flexible schedule category and did not collect data on their hours of arrival and departure. This flexible category contains more than three million persons, or approximately 30% of all paid workers.

The impact of economic cycles

Since the SWA is the first survey of its kind in Canada, there are no comparable data for a previous period. However, because the American survey has existed since 1973, some associations can be made between work schedules and economic cycles. For example, a resurgence of the traditional Monday-to-Friday day schedule was noted in recessionary periods, possibly owing to fewer overtime opportunities during these times. Conversely, in expansionary periods, the traditional schedule declines in importance, as part-time work and long work weeks become more prevalent (Smith, 1986).

Table 2

Distribution of full-time paid workers by type of schedule, occupation and industry, 1991

	Fixed daytime schedule			Fixed non-daytime schedule*		
	Number	Distri- bution	Fre- quency	Number	Distri- bution	Fre- quency
	'000	%		'000	%	
All occupations	5,674	100	88	784	100	12
Managerial and professional	2,153	38	90	229	29	10
Clerical	1,185	21	93	88	11	7
Sales	316	6	87	46	6	13
Service	367	6	69	166	21	31
Primary	95	2	82	20	3	18
Processing, machining and fabricating	856	15	88	115	15	12
Construction	384	7	96	17	2	4
Transport equipment operating	134	2	70	58	7	30
Material handling and other crafts	184	3	80	45	6	20
 All industries	 5,674	 100	 88	 784	 100	 12
Agriculture	45	1	77	13	2	23
Other primary	122	2	87	18	2	13
Manufacturing	1,162	20	87	168	21	13
Construction	319	6	95	16	2	5
Transportation, communication and other utilities	456	8	81	105	13	19
Trade	830	15	90	87	11	10
Finance, insurance and real estate	430	8	94	26	3	6
Services	1,705	30	84	319	41	16
Public administration	607	11	95	31	4	5

Source: Survey of Work Arrangements, November 1991

* Evening, night and unclassified schedules.

employed in service occupations – 21% compared with 6%. (Companies in this sector often must provide services outside traditional daytime hours to meet customer needs.) Processing, machining and fabricating occupations accounted for 15% of both day and non-day workers.

The frequency of fixed daytime schedules was generally high for most occupations, but it was lower for those connected with services and transport equipment operating. The frequency of daytime work was highest in construction, clerical, and managerial and professional occupations.

The distribution of paid workers by industry shows fairly similar concentrations for the two groups (those with fixed daytime schedules and those with fixed non-daytime schedules), with the exception of the service industry. This industry encompasses occupations ranging from teachers and health professionals to food services and personal service workers. Persons in the latter two categories often work non-daytime hours and account for 37% of all paid workers in the service sector.

Moreover, the frequency of day schedules is high in all industries. It ranges from 77% in agriculture to 95% in construction and public administration.

Conclusion

Of all full-time workers with fixed schedules, 88% have day schedules. However, if persons with flexible work schedules and part-time workers are added, the proportion of day workers falls to 55%. Since the SWA is the first survey on work arrangements, we

cannot conclude that full-time work on a fixed daytime schedule is declining (see *American data*). However, given the growth in the number of part-time jobs and the emergence of new work arrangements, full-time day schedules may be less prevalent in times to come. □

Notes

¹ If one includes workers with flexible or part-time schedules, full-time workers with a fixed daytime schedule account for 55% of all paid workers. However, this figure probably underestimates the proportion of full-time day workers, since a number of people whose work schedules are flexible have flexible day schedules.

² Throughout this note, references to 8 a.m., for example, as a starting time for the work day should be taken as meaning between 7:30 and 8:30 a.m. The same is true for all the start and end times.

³ These unclassified workers are mostly individuals who work long hours (10 or more) during the day or whose schedule is shifted forward or backward - for example, they may work from 11 a.m. to 7 p.m.

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Weekend workers

Jennifer Winters

For some people, weekend work is unavoidable. For example, workers in essential health and protective services are often required to work Saturdays and/or Sundays. And in seasonal industries such as farming and fishing, weekend work can be crucial at certain times of the year. As well, many businesses have been expanding their weekend service hours in recent years to meet consumer needs. In November 1991, 1.1 million persons, or 11% of Canada's paid workforce, regularly worked weekends.

Based on data from the November 1991 Survey of Work Arrangements (see *Data source*), this note examines the characteristics of "weekend workers." For this purpose, weekend workers are defined as paid employees aged 15 to 64 whose regular work schedules in their main job include Saturdays and/or Sundays.¹

When do they work?

Weekend work typically includes only one day during the weekend. Among paid workers with regularly scheduled weekend hours, 57% worked Saturdays only and 9% Sundays only. The remaining 34% worked both days.

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Data source

The November 1991 Survey of Work Arrangements (SWA) collected data on the work routines and schedules of paid workers aged 15 to 64. For a more detailed discussion of the survey and its results, see Akyeampong and Siroonian (1993) or Siroonian (1993).

The data in this note pertain only to paid workers whose regular work schedules in their main job included Saturdays and/or Sundays. Self-employed workers, unpaid family workers, and workers with irregular schedules have been excluded; it is likely that some of them had work schedules that included weekends. Furthermore, the data exclude multiple jobholders who did not regularly work Saturdays or Sundays in their main job but who may have had weekend schedules in their other jobs. Thus, the number of weekend workers is probably underestimated.

Where do they work?

Weekend work tends to be a service industry phenomenon.² In November 1991, paid workers in service-producing industries were twice as likely as those in the goods-producing sector to work weekends (12% compared with 6%).³ The high incidence of weekend work in services reflects the prevalence of weekend schedules among workers in trade (18%) and in community, business and personal services (13%) – industries whose regular operating hours generally include Saturdays and, to a lesser extent, Sundays (Table).

Table
Selected characteristics of weekend
workers, November 1991

	Weekend workers '000	Incidence of weekend work %
All weekend workers	1,089	11
Industry		
Goods-producing	149	6
Agriculture	43	39
Manufacturing	67	4
Other*	39	6
Service-producing	940	12
Trade	334	18
Community, business and personal services	479	13
Other**	126	6
Occupation		
Managerial and professional	213	6
Clerical	145	7
Sales	187	22
Service	324	23
Primary	48	24
Transport equipment operating	47	13
Other†	124	6
Sex		
Men	600	11
Women	488	10
Age		
15-24 years	450	24
25-34 years	284	9
35-44 years	185	7
45-64 years	170	7
Work status		
Full-time	657	8
Part-time	431	24
Unionization		
Unionized	198	5
Non-unionized	888	13
Schedule		
Saturday only	624	6
Sunday only	99	1
Both Saturday and Sunday	366	4

Source: Survey of Work Arrangements

* Forestry, fishing, mining and construction.

** Transportation, communication and other utilities;
finance, insurance and real estate; and public
administration.

† Processing, machining and fabricating; construction
trades; and material handling and other crafts.

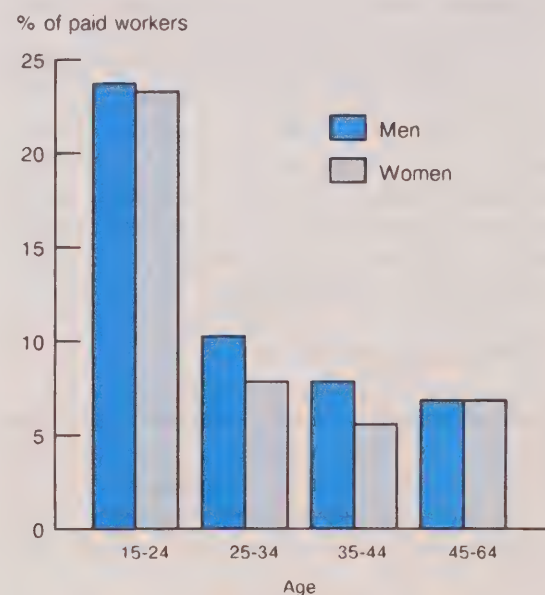
Who works weekends?

Weekend work was most common among younger workers. Paid workers aged 15 to 24 accounted for 42% of those who regularly worked Saturdays and 45% of those on Sundays. Nearly 25% of paid workers aged 15 to 24 worked weekends, compared with only 8% of those aged 25 to 64. This pattern was similar for both men and women (Chart A).

The concentration of weekend work among younger workers likely reflects, at least in part, a preference for weekend schedules among students. As well, older and more experienced workers may be able to avoid regular weekend work because of their seniority.

Chart A

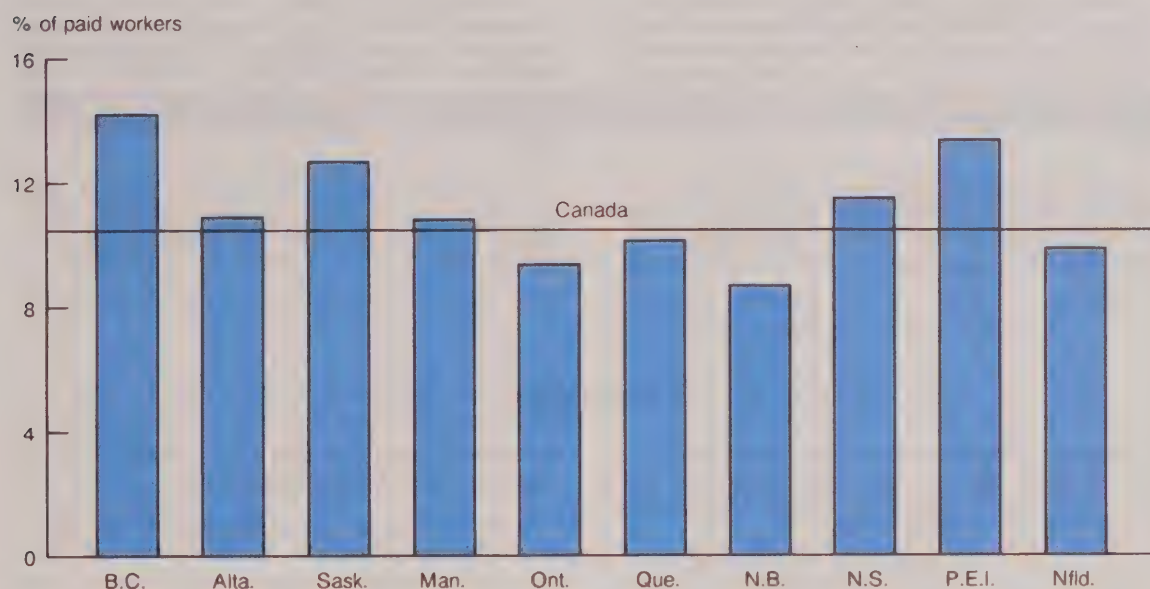
Young persons were the most likely to
work weekends.



Source: Survey of Work Arrangements, November 1991

Chart B

Weekend work was most prevalent in British Columbia.



Source: Survey of Work Arrangements, November 1991

Sixty percent of all weekend workers reported working full time, that is, 30 or more hours per week. However, the incidence of weekend work among part-timers (24%) was triple that for full-timers (8%) (Table). This observation is not surprising as part-time employment is prevalent in both trade and community, business and personal service industries.

The rate of unionization for weekend workers (18%) was much lower than that for paid workers who did not work weekends regularly (37%). This difference reflects the high proportion of youths (15 to 24) and the concentration of weekend workers in less unionized industries.

Paid workers in New Brunswick and Ontario were the least likely to work weekends (9%), while those in British Columbia were the most likely to (14%) (Chart B).

Weekend workers of the future

Recent labour market trends suggest that the face of weekend work may change in the near future. If growth in the service industry continues to outpace that in goods, an increasing number of paid workers may find themselves working weekends.⁴ As well, the declining share of youths in the labour force may result in more persons 25 and older working weekends.⁵ □

Notes

¹ A regular schedule is one in which the days worked are the same from week to week.

² Service-producing industries include transportation, communication and other utilities; wholesale and retail trade; finance, insurance and real estate; community, business and personal services; and public administration. Goods-producing industries include agriculture, forestry, fishing, mining, manufacturing and construction.

³ The only exception to this pattern was agriculture. In November 1991, the incidence of weekend work among paid workers in agriculture (39%) was more than three times that for service workers. This estimate would

likely have been even higher if the survey had been conducted during the peak farming season.

⁴ According to the Labour Force Survey, service-producing industries were responsible for all employment growth between 1981 and 1991. Service employment rose more than 1.6 million, and some 86% of this rise occurred in trade and in community, business or personal services, where weekend work is most prevalent.

⁵ The total labour force grew by 16% between 1981 and 1991. Over the same period, the proportion of the labour force accounted for by 15 to 24 year-olds fell from 26% to 18%.

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What's new?

Just released

Women continue to close the earnings gap

In 1992, the average employment earnings of women working full time, full year were about 72% those of their male counterparts – \$28,400 compared with \$39,500. This observation, recently reported in *Earnings of Men and Women in 1992*, continues the narrowing trend in the female-male wage gap that began in the late 1970s and accelerated in the mid-1980s.

The publication presents selected results of the 1992 Survey of Consumer Finances (SCF), conducted among approximately 37,000 households as a supplement to the Labour Force Survey in April 1993. Data tables on income received during 1992 are published for all workers, but the analytical discussion is restricted to full-time, full-year workers (who worked mostly 30 hours or more per week for 49 to 52 weeks in the year). Limiting analysis to this group minimizes the effect of sex-related differences in the hours of paid work done during the year (for example, controlling for the disproportionate number of women in part-time employment), thereby providing a more accurate picture of earnings disparities due to other factors, such as occupation, age and work experience. Earnings for all years are presented in constant (1992) dollars.

The highlights of *Earnings of Men and Women in 1992* include:

- In 1992, 8.5 million Canadians had earnings from full-time, full-year work, down about 5% from the peak year of 1989. The loss was experienced primarily among men, who accounted for almost 80% of the 463,000 drop.
- Men's earnings have been virtually stagnant since 1977, while those of women have climbed steadily since 1986. In 1992, the average earnings of full-time, full-year male workers were \$39,500 while women earned \$28,400, up 4.1% over 1991.
- The overall female-to-male earnings ratio increased from 69.6% in 1991 to 71.8% in 1992 for full-time, full-year workers. Over the four-year period of 1989 to 1992, the gap in earnings closed by 6.0 percentage points; over the previous nine years (1981 to 1989), it had narrowed by only 2.1 percentage points.
- Age affects the parity of female-to-male earnings: the female-to-male earnings ratio was lowest (66.7%) for those aged 55 and over and highest (92.7%) for those aged 15 to 24.
- Single women earned as much as single men. However, at \$28,400 in 1992, single men earned considerably less than married men (\$42,200) and divorced or widowed men (\$39,300). Marital status had no significant impact on women's average earnings, which ranged from \$28,100 to \$30,200.

- Education makes a difference in earning power: university graduates earned twice as much as workers with primary school only. Education substantially improved the incomes of both men and women.

Earnings of Men and Women in 1992 (Catalogue 13-217) is available for \$25 from any Statistics Canada Reference Centre, or Marketing Division, Sales and Service, Statistics Canada, Ottawa K1A 0T6; fax (613) 951-1584. Or call toll free 1 800 267-6677. □

Women record greatest employment gains in fastest-growing occupation groups

Over the past two decades, employment in white-collar occupations has grown by close to 50%. Between 1976 and 1993, the number of workers in white-collar jobs increased by 3 million, from 5.9 to 8.9 million, while employment in blue-collar occupations remained stable at about 3.5 million. The feature article in *Labour Force Annual Averages, 1993* explores these and other trends in occupation growth over the last two decades.

Among the main findings of the study are the following:

- Employment in the managerial and administrative occupations increased most rapidly and accounted for 35.7% of the total increase in employment.
- Growth in the professional occupations rivalled that in management and administration, accounting for 31.3% of new employment. Since 1982, the most rapidly expanding occupations in the professional category have been in the mathematics, statistics and systems analysis group.
- In 1993, women aged 25 and over made up almost half (47.5%) of workers in white-collar occupations, up from one-third (34.6%) in 1976. The greatest influx of women was in professional occupations (up 661,800 to 50.6% of all employment in this category) and in management and administration (up 546,900 to 39.3% of workers).
- In 1993, over half (56%) of adult male workers were employed in white-collar occupations, up 38% from 1976. Growth was concentrated in managerial and administrative, professional, and service occupations.
- Part-time employment among youths aged 15 to 24 increased by 357,400, from 20.5% of youth employment in 1976 to 43.6% in 1993. Almost half of this growth was in service occupations.

Labour Force Annual Averages, 1993 provides 1993 annual average estimates of labour market indicators published monthly in *The Labour Force* (Catalogue 71-001). In addition, it provides provincial breakdowns for variables such as employment by detailed industry, occupation, hours worked, average days lost by major industry group, and labour force characteristics by family composition. The annual publication also contains more detail for sub-provincial areas than the monthly publication, with estimates of employment by major industry group and occupation for both census metropolitan areas (CMAs) and economic regions. Selected data are rounded to hundreds rather than thousands, and many estimates of less than 4,000 are published; this increased precision reduces the errors that occur when calculations are based on rounded estimates.

Labour Force Annual Averages, 1993 (Catalogue 71-220) is available for \$39 from any Statistics Canada Reference Centre, or from Marketing Division, Sales and Service, Statistics Canada, Ottawa K1A 0T6; fax

(613) 951-1584. Or call toll free 1 800 267-6677. □

Extra health insurance is a work benefit for half of Canadian workers

Over half of Canadian paid employees are covered by some sort of extra health insurance through their place of work, and this coverage tends to make them more satisfied with their jobs. These are among the findings in *Health Status of Canadians*, based on results of the General Social Survey, Cycle 6 (GSS 6). The topics covered in the report include general health, psychological well-being, work, use of health care, chronic pain and sleep difficulties, smoking and alcohol use, and physical activity. In addition to reporting the 1991 findings, results of the 1985 GSS on health and the 1978-79 Canada Health Survey are used to provide information on changes in health status over the last 15 years.

Some of the work-related findings include:

- 56% of paid employees have employer-provided disability insurance, 53% have extra medical or surgical coverage, and 53% have dental care.
- Men are more likely than women to have extra health benefits through their employer, and the availability of benefit programs is generally better for workers in more highly skilled occupations.
- Two-thirds of employed Canadians (9.7 million) described themselves as being exposed to a physical health hazard in the workplace. The most common hazards reported were dust or fibre particles in the air and working in proximity to a computer screen or terminal.

- Workers with health benefits and less exposure to health risks are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs.

Among the findings that can affect a worker's health and performance on the job are the following:

- 25% of all Canadian adults aged 15 and over have trouble either getting to sleep or staying asleep.
- 20% of adults are bothered by pain and discomfort.
- 11% of adults have a long-term health problem – most commonly a back problem – that limits the type or amount of activity they are able to perform at home, at work, or at school.
- About 32% of adults are physically very active in their leisure time, while 22% are sedentary.

Health Status of Canadians (Catalogue 11-612E, no. 8) is available for \$40 from any Statistics Canada Reference Centre, or from Marketing Division, Sales and Service, Statistics Canada, Ottawa K1A 0T6; fax (613) 951-1584. Or call toll free 1 800 267-6677. □

1992 spending data show tax burden up considerably since 1986

Between 1986 and 1992, average household spending on income taxes increased by 42% to \$9,400 annually, accounting for 20% of total household expenditures. Household spending after taxes rose by a more modest 26%, from an annual average of \$28,700 to \$36,200. These are among the findings reported in *Family Expenditure in Canada, 1992*, which provides a highly detailed examination of the spending habits of Canadian households. The publication is

based on results of the national Survey of Family Expenditures (FAMEX), conducted in the first quarter of 1993.

The report relates spending patterns to household income and other sociodemographic characteristics, such as age, type of dwelling, employment status of household members, and number of people in the household and their relationship to each other. Expenditures are also described for different geographic regions.

Other highlights of *Family Expenditure in Canada, 1992* include:

- Income taxes accounted for 4% of household expenditures made by Canadian households in the lowest income quintile, compared with 29% for households in the highest income quintile. Households in the middle-income group spent 17% of their income on taxes.
- Shelter was the biggest expense for the lowest-income households at 32% of after-tax expenditures, compared with 20% for the highest-income and 23% for the middle-income households.
- Homeowners without a mortgage allocated 16% (\$5,500) of their after-tax expenditures to shelter. Both homeowners with a mortgage and tenants spent the same proportion of after-tax income on shelter – about 25% – but the dollar amounts differed considerably (\$11,700 and \$7,000 respectively).
- Total transportation expenses rose by 21% between 1986 and 1992, mainly because of a 23% increase in the cost of private transportation.
- The proportion of households reporting child-care expenditures in 1992 was down marginally from 1986, to 15%, but expenses were up 51% as spending on

daycare centres and day nurseries doubled over the period.

- Spending dropped 13% on car purchases but doubled for trucks (including minivans); meanwhile, outlays for automobile maintenance and repair increased by 30%.
- Except for minivans and furniture, the only consumer durable on which spending increased was computer equipment and supplies. Expenditure almost tripled between 1986 and 1992, as the proportion of households owning computers doubled from 11% to 22%.

Family Expenditure in Canada, 1992 (Catalogue 62-555) is available for \$60 from any Statistics Canada Reference Centre, or from Marketing Division, Sales and Service, Statistics Canada, Ottawa K1A 0T6; fax (613) 951-1584. Or call toll free 1 800 267-6677.

Two associated reports are also available: *Homeowner Repair and Renovation Expenditure in Canada, 1992* (Catalogue 62-201) for \$30 and *Family Food Expenditure in Canada, 1992* (Catalogue 62-554) for \$40. □

Fewer teenagers, more are students

Teenagers aged 15 to 19 numbered 1.9 million in 1991 and accounted for almost 7% of the Canadian population, down from 10% in 1976. Over three-quarters of them (77%) were full-time students in 1991-92, up from two-thirds (65%) in 1975-76. This is the context in which the second edition of *Youth in Canada* examines a large array of issues that affect young people aged 15 to 19. Data from a number of surveys are used to explore teenagers' work experience, family, education, health, time use, criminal activity and victimization.

Among the highlights of the report are the following:

- Although almost 90% of teenagers lived at home with their parent(s), 3% lived with other relatives and 4% with non-relatives, 3% headed their own families, and 1% lived alone.
- 42% of teenagers were employed and the majority of them worked part time; 77% of employed teens worked in clerical, sales, service or primary occupations.
- Unemployment among teenagers is very high: in 1992, 19.7% of those who wanted work could not find a job.
- Over four in five families headed by a teen, and a similar proportion of teens living alone, fell below Statistics Canada's low-income cut-offs (LICOs). This is not surprising, since the average income of families headed by a teen was \$15,600, about one-third the Canadian average.

Youth in Canada: Second Edition (Catalogue 89-511E) is available for \$37 from any Statistics Canada Reference Centre, or from Marketing Division, Sales and Service, Statistics Canada, Ottawa K1A 0T6; fax (613) 951-1584. Or call toll free 1 800 267-6677. □

New Surveys

May 1994: Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics, income component

Over the course of six years, the longitudinal Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID) will record sociodemographic events in people's lives that can influence economic well-being and relate these events to changes in labour force participation and income. In

May, collection of income data for reference year 1993 was completed for the first panel of households – about 15,000 – participating in the survey. (For a brief description of SLID and the labour market component completed in January, see *What's New?*, Spring 1994.)

Data were gathered on:

- wages and salaries
- self-employment income
- investment income
- transfer payments
- tax credits
- pension income
- alimony, separation allowances, child support
- other money income, such as severance pay, scholarships and bursaries, inheritances
- income tax

The second wave of income collection in May 1995 will include questions on wealth; that is, the value of various types of assets and debts. Wealth data were collected as part of a SLID field test in May 1993, but to reduce respondent burden, they will be collected only two or three times from each panel of respondents.

Results of the first year of data from the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (1993) should be available in late 1994 or early 1995. Regular news about the SLID project is published in the quarterly newsletter *Dynamics*, which reports on plans and progress, products and services, and research activities. For further information, contact Philip Giles at (613) 951-2891; or fax (613) 951-3253. □

Special Conference Report

Economic Equality Workshop, Status of Women, November 29-30, 1993

The workshop addressed several issues of particular importance to women, including the impact of economic restructuring, patterns of paid and unpaid work, and the choices faced by working women with family responsibilities. The 160 participants also devoted attention to discussing "feminist economics," which questions traditional approaches to economic analysis by challenging its description of the paid market economy as the only economy. Advocates argue that by ignoring the enormous productivity of the domestic economy, any assessment of the real nature of economic activity is incomplete, and such truncated models often produce social and economic policies that are inadequate or misdirected.

Much of the debate centred around the research papers presented by the 15 speakers, most of them academics. Papers that might interest *Perspectives* readers are briefly described below.

Jane Jenson (Université de Montréal): "Part-time work and women: A range of strategies"

Part-time, temporary and limited-term labour contracts have become increasingly prevalent in the past decade, and women are disproportionately represented among workers hired under these terms. Jenson contends that widespread adoption of part-time work – whether by employers as an attempt to control costs or by governments as a strategy to control unemployment – undermines women's economic equality with men. The paper examines patterns of part-time employment and then analyzes some of the

options available to government to respond to the burgeoning level of part-time work.

Francine Mayer (Université du Québec à Montréal): "The impact of part-time work experience on the duration of unemployment in Canada: A comparative study of men and women"

Generally speaking, part-time work pays less than full-time employment, requires lower qualifications, provides fewer career and training opportunities, and offers less employment stability. The paper suggests that, if the work experience of unemployed workers is mainly in part-time jobs, but they are now looking for full-time work, the duration of their unemployment increases, as does the likelihood that they will withdraw from the labour force completely. Given that 70% of part-time workers are women, this marginalization has a disproportionate impact on them, especially since women with families are more likely to take part-time work than extend a period of unemployment. In contrast, unemployed men with families are more likely to hold out for a full-time position than to accept part-time work.

Monica Neitzert (Laurentian University): "Marginal notes: Women in Canada's underground economy"

Although the data are limited, the paper attempts to explore the differences in male and female participation in the underground economy, analyzing such variables as earnings, education, hours worked, cumulative work experience, and occupation. Neitzert concludes that women are concentrated in a much narrower range of industries and occupations, just as they are in the regular economy, and that earnings disparities still exist. Multiple regression analysis shows that the earnings gap is due to male-female differences in human capital.

Martin Dooley (McMaster University): "Women, children and poverty in Canada"

The paper examines the accuracy of the claim that "feminization" and "juvenization" of poverty have grown extensively since the 1970s. Dooley concludes that it has indeed occurred largely because of changes in poverty rates and the demographic composition of the impoverished population associated with the increase in poor lone-parent families headed by women. The paper also assesses the impact of anti-poverty transfer and tax policies, which have significantly reduced poverty among women over 65 but not among younger women. He finds no evidence of a growing bias against women and children in the anti-poverty policies, arguing that success in reducing poverty among senior citizens may be due to transfer payments and tax measures better-tailored to the circumstances of older women than to those of lone mothers.

Joan McFarland (St. Thomas University): "Combining economic and social policy through work and welfare: The impact on women"

Women make up the majority of social assistance recipients and the vast majority of social assistance-dependent lone parent families. Development of new programs and revisions of existing ones will therefore have a disproportionate effect on women. The paper analyzes the traditional economic

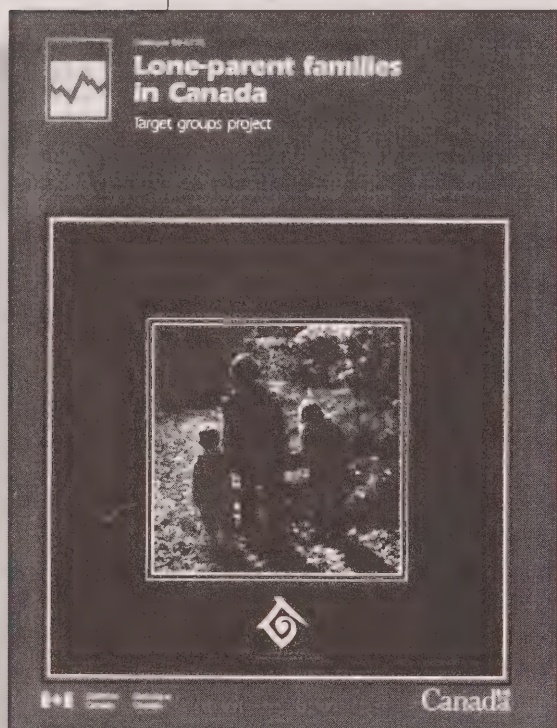
assumptions underlying social assistance programs to determine whether they really benefit their recipients; it also summarizes a discussion among social assistance recipients in New Brunswick about the work-incentive programs recently introduced.

Kathleen Day and Rose Anne Devlin (University of Ottawa): "Can volunteer work help explain the male-female wage gap?"

It is often argued that volunteer work contributes to the development of human capital, thus enhancing the individual's labour market potential. Earlier work by the authors support this belief. This paper explores why men receive higher rewards in the labour market for engaging in volunteer activity, even though women volunteers are often more active in the types of organizations for which labour market returns are higher (education, recreation, religion, health). The results suggest that women's volunteer work is less highly valued than men's, and may reflect the human capital developed by the type of activity undertaken; for example, baking cookies and coaching a hockey team improve different skills to which are attached different values.

A limited number of the papers presented at the Economic Equality Workshop will be available in both official languages at the end of June. Contact the Communications Directorate, Status of Women Canada, at (613) 995-7835; or fax (613) 943-2386. □

Lone-parent families in Canada



Life in lone-parent families

The structure of family living in Canada has changed dramatically in the last several decades. The growing number of lone-parent families has been one of the most profound developments. In fact, by 1991, there were almost one million lone-parent families, representing one of every five families with children. As well, women make up the vast majority of lone parents.

Lone-parent families in Canada reports on why this situation is so important. And it reveals that many lone-parent families, especially those headed by women, are economically disadvantaged. For example, as many as three out of five of these families have incomes below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs.

Lone-parent families in Canada, describes this group of Canadians and their major characteristics. With over 50 charts and tables to support the analysis, this report covers topics such as:

- demographic and family status
- labour force experience
- time use patterns
- income
- housing and household amenities

Lone-parent families in Canada is a "must read" for everyone involved in the analysis, planning, development and delivery of social services to Canadians. And if you are concerned with issues related to family organization, low income, and the role of women in our society, this report delivers the data and analysis you need to develop informed opinions and policies about these important topics.

Order your copy of *Lone-parent families in Canada* (Cat. No. 89-522E) today, for only \$40 in Canada, US \$48 in the United States, and US \$56 in other countries.

Call toll-free 1-800-267-6677 or fax your order to (613) 951-1584 and use your VISA or MasterCard. Or write to:

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Statistics Canada
Ottawa, Ontario
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This publication is also available through the nearest Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre listed in this publication.

Key labour and income facts

The following selection of labour and income indicators is drawn from 11 sources and includes published and unpublished annual data. These indicators appear in every issue.

The latest annual figures are always shown; as results become available, the indicators are updated so that every issue contains new data. An indicator updated or revised since the last issue is "flagged" with an asterisk.

Data sources

The indicators are derived from the following sources:

- 1-13 & 15 Labour Force Survey**
Frequency: Monthly
Contact: Doug Drew (613) 951-4720
- 14 Survey of Consumer Finances**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Kevin Bishop (613) 951-2211
- 16 Absence from Work Survey**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Nancy Brooks (613) 951-4589
- 17 National Work Injuries Statistics Program**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Joanne Proulx (613) 951-4040
- 18 Help-wanted Index**
Frequency: Monthly
Contact: André Picard (613) 951-4045
- 19-20 Unemployment Insurance Statistics Program**
Frequency: Monthly
Contact: André Picard (613) 951-4045

- 21-28 Survey of Employment, Payrolls and Hours**
Frequency: Monthly
Contact: Cindy Ingalls (613) 951-4090
- 29-31 Major wage settlements, Bureau of Labour Information (Human Resources Development)**
Frequency: Quarterly
Contact: Information (819) 997-3117
- 32-34 Labour income (Revenue Canada, Taxation; Survey of Employment, Payrolls and Hours; and other surveys)**
Frequency: Quarterly
Contact: Ed Bunko (613) 951-4048
- 35-45 Survey of Consumer Finances**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Kevin Bishop (613) 951-2211
- 46-52 Household Facilities and Equipment Survey**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Penny Barclay (613) 951-4634
- 53-54 Small area and administrative data**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Customer Services (613) 951-9720

Notes and definitions of certain indicators are given at the end of the table.

Additional data

The table provides, at the most, two years of data for each indicator. A longer time series (generally 10 years) for this set of indicators can be obtained, on paper or diskette, at a cost of \$50. (A more extensive explanation of the indicators is also available.) This 10-year data set is updated quarterly. For information, contact Jeannine Usalcas at (613) 951-6889; fax (613) 951-4179.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
Labour market								
1	Labour force	'000	1992	13,797	236	64	416	331
			1993	13,946	234	65	419	332
	Change	%		1.1	-0.9	1.1	0.6	0.3
2	Participation rate	%	1992	65.5	53.6	65.8	59.9	59.0
			1993	65.2	52.8	65.3	59.8	59.0
3	Employed	'000	1992	12,240	188	53	361	289
			1993	12,383	186	53	357	291
	Change	%		1.2	-0.9	1.0	-1.1	0.6
4	Proportion of employed working part time	%	1992	16.8	13.5	16.4	17.5	15.6
			1993	17.3	14.2	17.2	17.8	16.0
5	Proportion of part-timers wanting full-time work	%	1992	32.5	62.1	43.4	45.5	45.9
			1993	35.5	63.8	43.5	47.7	50.4
6	Unemployed	'000	1992	1,556	48	11	55	42
			1993	1,562	47	12	61	42
	Change	%		0.4	-0.6	1.5	11.7	-1.6
7	Official unemployment rate	%	1992	11.3	20.2	17.7	13.1	12.8
			1993	11.2	20.2	17.7	14.6	12.6
Alternative measures of unemployment								
8	Unemployed 14 or more weeks as a proportion of the labour force	%	1992	5.5	10.2	7.3	6.0	5.4
			1993	5.6	10.7	7.8	7.0	5.4
9	Unemployment rate:							
	- of persons heading families with children under age 16	%	1992	9.7	19.0	17.4	10.9	11.5
			1993	9.5	19.1	17.9	12.5	11.4
	- excluding full-time students	%	1992	11.0	20.1	17.9	12.7	12.6
			1993	10.9	20.0	18.0	14.3	12.3
	- including full-time members of the Canadian Armed Forces	%	1992	11.2	20.1	17.6	12.8	12.6
			1993	11.1	20.1	17.7	14.2	12.4
	- of the full-time labour force	%	1992	13.6	23.6	21.4	16.6	16.0
			1993	13.9	24.0	21.6	18.3	16.1
	- of the part-time labour force	%	1992	14.1	21.7	12.0	16.7	15.6
			1993	14.4	21.5	13.0	18.0	15.7
	- including discouraged workers and others on the margins of the labour force	%	1992	12.1	24.4	18.7	14.1	14.8
			1993	12.0	24.4	18.9	15.6	14.2

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
3,385	5,286	535	480	1,370	1,693	1992	'000	1
3,404	5,362	540	479	1,384	1,728	1993		
0.6	1.4	0.9	-0.2	1.0	2.0		%	
62.5	67.3	66.0	66.6	71.9	66.3	1992	%	2
62.2	66.9	66.6	66.6	71.5	65.7	1993		
2,953	4,714	484	440	1,240	1,517	1992	'000	3
2,960	4,793	490	440	1,252	1,561	1993		
0.2	1.7	1.3	-	1.0	2.9		%	
15.1	17.3	19.4	18.4	16.4	18.0	1992	%	4
15.7	18.1	19.4	18.4	17.1	17.8	1993		
38.0	29.1	32.8	35.4	27.8	27.9	1992	%	5
41.9	32.0	34.3	38.2	31.7	30.0	1993		
432	572	51	39	130	176	1992	'000	6
444	569	50	38	132	167	1993		
2.9	-0.5	-2.8	-2.4	1.7	-5.0		%	
12.8	10.8	9.6	8.2	9.5	10.4	1992	%	7
13.1	10.6	9.2	8.0	9.6	9.7	1993		
6.8	5.4	4.0	3.4	3.8	4.5	1992	%	8
7.2	5.5	4.3	3.4	4.1	4.3	1993		
										9
10.6	9.1	8.1	7.3	8.5	9.1	1992	%	
10.3	8.9	7.6	7.0	9.0	8.0	1993		
12.6	10.3	9.2	8.0	9.3	10.3	1992	%	
12.8	10.2	8.8	7.8	9.2	9.5	1993		
12.7	10.8	9.5	8.2	9.4	10.4	1992	%	
13.0	10.6	9.2	8.0	9.5	9.6	1993		
15.3	12.8	12.4	11.4	11.3	12.8	1992	%	
15.8	13.1	12.2	11.3	11.7	12.0	1993		
15.3	14.8	12.9	9.6	13.1	11.9	1992	%	
16.8	14.0	12.3	10.9	14.5	12.5	1993		
14.2	11.3	10.2	8.8	9.9	10.7	1992	%	
14.6	11.0	9.9	8.5	9.9	10.1	1993		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
10	Underutilization rate based on hours lost through unemployment and underemployment	%	1992 1993	14.3 14.6	24.3 24.8	22.0 22.3	17.5 19.1	17.1 17.3
11	Proportion unemployed six months or longer	%	1992 1993	28.1 30.8	29.3 33.0	-- --	23.9 26.8	22.2 23.8
Other labour market indicators								
12	Employment/population ratio for persons aged:							
-	15 to 24 years	%	1992 1993	53.5 52.1	32.4 30.5	49.4 51.3	48.0 46.7	46.9 46.5
-	25 to 64 years	%	1992 1993	70.0 70.1	53.7 53.4	67.1 66.0	64.5 63.3	63.5 63.8
-	65 years and over	%	1992 1993	6.4 6.2	3.1 2.3	7.2 6.2	3.6 4.0	4.0 3.7
13	Employment by major class of worker:							
-	employees	'000	1992 1993	10,372 10,399	162 159	43 44	314 306	253 253
-	self-employed	'000	1992 1993	1,807 1,912	26 27	10 10	46 51	35 36
14	Men working full time, full year	'000	1991 1992	5,126 5,091	68 65	18 19	143 132	115 118
	Women working full time, full year	'000	1991 1992	3,419 3,423	45 48	13 13	93 96	79 82
15	Days lost per full-time worker per year through illness or for personal reasons	days	1992 1993	9.2 9.3	10.7 9.4	7.9 7.7	9.0 9.8	8.9 8.5
16	Proportion of paid workers absent two or more consecutive weeks because of illness or accident	%	1991 1992	6.3 5.6	5.0 4.1	4.8 4.0	5.6 5.4	6.5 6.0
17	Workers receiving Workers' Compensation for time-loss injuries	'000	1991 1992	521 456	9 8	2 2	13 12	12 10
	Change	%		-12.5	-17.3	-6.3	-4.3	-14.2
*18	Help-wanted Index (1991 = 100)		1992 1993	86 87	88 82	96 117	87 88	82 89

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
15.8	13.6	13.1	12.1	12.1	13.3	1992	%	10
16.4	13.9	13.0	12.2	12.6	12.7	1993		
33.1	29.8	23.6	21.0	20.4	22.5	1992	%	11
34.2	33.3	26.9	23.2	24.4	24.2	1993		
										12
48.8	55.3	58.3	54.4	59.7	58.8	1992	%	
46.9	53.7	58.4	55.1	58.6	57.5	1993		
65.3	72.2	73.6	76.6	75.3	72.2	1992	%	
65.4	72.5	74.5	76.6	75.3	72.1	1993		
4.7	7.0	7.1	12.6	10.1	5.0	1992	%	
4.1	6.8	7.8	13.3	9.5	5.2	1993		
										13
2,545	4,068	399	328	1,007	1,253	1992	'000	
2,529	4,095	403	327	1,007	1,275	1993		
394	630	80	102	224	259	1992	'000	
415	674	83	104	232	279	1993		
1,264	1,981	194	188	534	621	1991	'000	14
1,237	1,999	199	187	510	624	1992		
819	1,388	122	114	331	415	1991	'000	
825	1,393	133	108	325	401	1992		
10.7	9.0	8.4	8.1	7.7	8.6	1992	days	15
10.4	9.1	9.7	8.6	7.9	9.3	1993		
7.8	6.0	6.1	5.0	4.9	6.2	1991	%	16
5.9	5.2	7.8	3.8	5.9	5.8	1992		
179	155	18	13	39	79	--	1	1991	'000	17
146	137	17	12	32	78	--	1	1992		
-18.1	-11.9	-8.6	-5.6	-17.1	-1.6	--	-2.3		%	
87	86	93	83	76	87	1992		18
92	86	91	83	80	84	1993		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
Unemployment insurance								
19	Total beneficiaries	'000	1991	1,365	80	15	63	65
			1992	1,388	81	16	65	67
	Change	%		1.7	1.6	5.0	2.7	2.5
20	Regular beneficiaries without reported earnings	'000	1991	1,024	63	11	46	51
			1992	1,006	63	11	46	51
	Change	%		-1.8	-	4.4	-1.0	-1.0
Earnings (including overtime) and hours								
*21	Average weekly earnings in current dollars	\$	1992	549.80	510.65	444.70	491.10	494.39
			1993	559.24	526.86	453.74	495.80	503.30
	Change	%		1.7	3.2	2.0	1.0	1.8
*22	Average weekly earnings in 1986 dollars	\$	1992	429.20	418.22	350.43	391.31	395.51
			1993	428.87	424.54	350.92	390.39	397.55
	Change	%		-0.1	1.5	0.1	-0.2	0.5
*23	Average weekly earnings of salaried employees in current dollars	\$	1992	691.04	621.71	599.84	621.34	624.15
			1993	705.03	641.80	608.24	620.64	637.67
	Change	%		2.0	3.2	1.4	-0.1	2.2
*24	Average weekly earnings of salaried employees in 1986 dollars	\$	1992	539.45	509.18	472.69	495.09	499.32
			1993	540.67	517.16	470.41	488.69	503.69
	Change	%		0.2	1.6	-0.5	-1.3	0.9
*25	Average weekly earnings of hourly paid employees in current dollars	\$	1992	421.51	381.63	285.01	375.98	393.56
			1993	428.70	406.10	297.56	382.35	402.62
	Change	%		1.7	6.4	4.4	1.7	2.3
*26	Average weekly earnings of hourly paid employees in 1986 dollars	\$	1992	329.05	312.56	224.59	299.59	314.85
			1993	328.76	327.24	230.13	301.06	318.03
	Change	%		-0.1	4.7	2.5	0.5	1.0
*27	Average weekly hours of hourly paid employees	hrs	1992	30.5	33.5	30.4	31.7	33.1
			1993	30.6	33.9	30.7	31.7	33.4
*28	Average weekly overtime hours of hourly paid employees	hrs	1992	0.8	0.9	0.3	0.6	0.7
			1993	0.9	1.0	0.4	0.6	0.7
Major wage settlements								
*29	Number of agreements		1992	493	11	5	5	14
			1993	499	15	3	10	3
*30	Number of employees	'000	1992	1,318	28	7	5	30
			1993	1,415	37	6	18	3
*31	Effective wage increase in base rates	%	1992	2.1	0.1	0.3	1.8	1.6
			1993	0.7	0.1	-	5.2	2.8

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
427	391	41	30	90	159	2	2	1991	'000	19
433	400	40	31	97	154	2	2	1992		
1.2	2.4	-2.4	2.8	8.1	-2.7	-1.1	18.7		%	
330	286	28	22	67	116	1	2	1991	'000	20
322	284	26	21	69	108	1	2	1992		
-2.5	-0.5	-7.7	-1.0	2.9	-6.6	-4.0	15.2		%	
537.13	578.30	488.66	472.35	546.59	549.09	677.86	714.13	1992	\$	21
543.14	591.13	492.6	473.95	554.15	561.23	678.78	705.38	1993		
1.1	2.2	0.8	0.3	1.4	2.2	0.1	-1.2		%	
417.35	448.29	385.30	371.93	432.43	431.67	1992	\$	22
416.20	450.56	378.34	362.35	433.27	426.47	1993		
-0.3	0.5	-1.8	-2.6	0.2	-1.2		%	
654.66	733.38	632.38	618.11	703.25	682.99	835.62	813.88	1992	\$	23
662.07	752.50	641.92	623.42	717.06	703.37	845.26	822.55	1993		
1.1	2.6	1.5	0.9	2.0	3.0	1.2	1.1		%	
508.67	568.51	498.72	486.70	556.37	536.94	1992	\$	24
507.33	573.55	493.03	476.62	560.64	534.48	1993		
-0.3	0.9	-1.1	-2.1	0.8	-0.5		%	
429.49	436.08	365.83	336.67	387.98	441.91	494.62	576.41	1992	\$	25
435.35	444.36	369.75	336.15	398.57	446.85	472.39	556.94	1993		
1.4	1.9	1.1	-0.2	2.7	1.1	-4.5	-3.4		%	
333.71	338.05	288.51	265.09	306.95	347.41	1992	\$	26
333.60	338.69	283.99	257.00	311.63	339.55	1993		
-	0.2	-1.6	-3.1	1.5	-2.3		%	
31.5	30.6	30.0	28.3	29.3	29.2	31.0	33.1	1992	hrs	27
31.6	30.7	29.7	27.9	29.7	29.1	30.6	32.1	1993		
0.7	0.9	0.7	0.7	1.1	0.8	2.2	2.6	1992	hrs	28
0.8	1.0	0.7	0.7	1.3	0.8	1.7	2.7	1993		
90	174	17	8	44	66	1992		29
120	146	18	13	54	48	1993		
469	347	19	12	77	170	1992	'000	30
559	235	41	40	101	103	1993		
1.1	2.4	2.4	3.3	3.6	3.5	1992	%	31
0.2	1.4	0.8	1.1	0.3	2.3	1993		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
Labour income								
32	Labour income in current dollars	\$ million	1991	376.7	5.1	1.2	9.4	7.4
			1992	388.1	5.1	1.2	9.6	7.7
	Change	%		3.0	-	4.6	2.3	3.6
33	Labour income per employee in current dollars	\$	1991	35,000	29,900	27,300	28,900	29,500
			1992	36,500	31,300	28,200	30,300	29,800
	Change	%		4.2	4.6	3.4	4.7	1.0
34	Labour income per employee in 1986 dollars	\$	1991	27,700	24,800	21,700	23,200	23,800
			1992	28,500	25,600	22,200	24,100	23,900
	Change	%		2.7	3.5	2.6	4.1	0.4
35	Net income from self-employment as a proportion of money income	%	1991	5.5	3.7	6.6	4.4	4.2
			1992	5.1	3.3	6.5	3.7	4.3
Earnings of full-time, full-year workers								
36	Average earnings of men working full time, full year	\$	1991	38,600	33,400	30,500	35,300	34,700
			1992	39,500	36,200	32,600	37,600	35,200
	Change	%		2.3	8.3	6.6	6.7	1.2
37	Average earnings of women working full time, full year	\$	1991	26,800	24,500	24,700	23,200	23,000
			1992	28,400	25,200	26,100	24,900	24,700
	Change	%		5.6	2.8	5.7	7.1	7.3
38	Ratio of female-to-male earnings	%	1991	69.6	73.4	80.8	65.8	66.1
			1992	71.8	69.7	80.1	66.0	70.2
Family income								
39	Average family income	\$	1991	53,100	41,700	42,800	45,100	44,300
			1992	53,700	42,100	44,400	46,900	46,500
40	Median family income	\$	1991	46,700	36,600	38,000	39,400	38,700
			1992	47,700	36,800	39,400	40,500	41,700
41	Average income of unattached individuals	\$	1991	22,500	18,200	16,500	19,100	19,900
			1992	23,200	19,600	18,800	18,800	19,000
42	Median income of unattached individuals	\$	1991	17,300	13,100	12,200	14,700	15,100
			1992	17,600	13,900	14,400	13,100	14,300
*43	Average family taxes	\$	1991	10,500	6,700	7,000	8,100	7,600
			1992	10,300	6,700	7,100	8,500	7,900
*44	Average family income after tax	\$	1991	42,600	35,000	35,800	37,000	36,700
			1992	43,400	35,500	37,200	38,400	38,600

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
87.4	160.6	12.3	9.6	36.2	45.3	0.5	1.2	1991	\$ million	32
90.2	164.9	12.6	9.9	37.3	47.4	0.6	1.2	1992		
3.2	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.9	4.6	8.3	1.8		%	
33,200	38,000	29,700	28,300	34,000	35,100	1991	\$	33
34,700	39,700	31,200	29,500	35,300	36,400	1992		
4.5	4.5	4.9	4.4	3.7	3.6		%	
26,300	29,800	23,800	22,500	27,300	28,400	1991	\$	34
26,900	30,800	24,600	23,200	27,900	28,600	1992		
2.6	3.4	3.4	3.3	2.2	0.8		%	
4.3	5.7	6.7	10.3	6.4	5.5	1991	%	35
4.2	5.3	6.5	8.7	4.4	6.4	1992		
36,700	41,500	31,900	31,900	39,300	38,700	1991	\$	36
37,300	42,200	34,900	32,700	38,700	40,900	1992		
1.6	1.6	9.2	2.6	-1.5	5.7		%	
25,700	29,000	23,800	22,100	25,300	27,100	1991	\$	37
27,600	30,400	24,500	23,100	27,200	28,600	1992		
7.1	4.8	2.6	4.4	7.5	5.4		%	
70.1	69.8	74.7	69.4	64.5	70.2	1991	%	38
73.9	71.9	70.2	70.6	70.3	70.0	1992		
48,600	58,600	46,600	45,900	55,600	54,900	1991	\$	39
48,600	58,800	50,300	48,200	54,700	56,400	1992		
42,700	52,000	41,300	40,900	48,100	50,600	1991	\$	40
43,800	52,800	43,700	41,300	47,700	50,300	1992		
20,700	24,700	20,400	20,000	23,500	22,600	1991	\$	41
21,100	26,300	18,900	20,300	22,900	23,400	1992		
15,200	20,000	16,000	14,600	19,100	18,200	1991	\$	42
15,000	20,300	14,600	14,600	17,700	20,600	1992		
10,100	11,800	8,300	8,600	11,000	10,600	1991	\$	43
9,400	11,700	9,100	8,200	10,200	10,900	1992		
38,500	46,900	38,300	37,400	44,500	44,300	1991	\$	44
39,200	47,100	41,200	40,000	44,500	45,500	1992		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
45	Proportion below the low income cut-offs (1992 base):							
	– families	%	1991 1992	12.9 13.3	16.2 18.4	10.6 7.2	12.9 13.8	12.3 11.5
	– unattached individuals	%	1991 1992	40.0 39.7	50.8 44.5	49.0 38.1	40.2 48.5	39.7 40.3
	– persons (population)	%	1991 1992	16.5 16.8	18.1 20.7	15.4 11.4	16.2 17.8	14.9 14.0
	– children (less than 18 years)	%	1991 1992	18.9 18.9	20.3 26.4	17.3 12.3	21.0 20.5	19.2 15.6
	– elderly (65 years and over)	%	1991 1992	21.7 20.6	20.6 21.7	19.7 14.5	19.0 20.0	15.5 13.8
	Households and dwellings							
46	Estimated number of households and dwellings	'000	1992 1993	10,056 10,247	177 182	46 47	329 336	256 256
47	Average household income	\$	1991 1992	46,100 46,800	39,200 39,500	37,700 39,400	39,800 40,600	40,200 41,500
48	Proportion of households with:							
	– VCRs	%	1992 1993	73.8 77.3	74.6 76.9	69.6 74.5	75.4 77.7	73.4 78.9
	– microwaves	%	1992 1993	76.0 79.1	68.9 72.0	69.6 76.6	76.9 79.5	76.2 82.0
	– two or more automobiles	%	1992 1993	24.6 23.8	11.9 14.8	23.9 25.6	20.1 19.4	19.9 21.5
	– vans and trucks	%	1992 1993	26.8 28.4	36.2 33.5	32.6 34.0	28.9 27.7	34.0 36.7
	– air conditioners	%	1992 1993	26.7 25.7	-- --	-- --	4.9 3.9	6.6 10.2
49	Proportion of all dwellings that are owner-occupied	%	1992 1993	63.1 64.1	78.5 78.6	69.6 74.5	71.4 72.3	75.4 76.2
50	Proportion of all owner-occupied dwellings that are mortgage free	%	1992 1993	50.6 48.3	68.3 70.6	53.1 54.3	57.0 53.1	56.0 52.8
51	Dwellings in need of repair as a proportion of all occupied dwellings	%	1992 1993	26.7 22.0	31.1 31.3	28.2 25.6	34.3 27.1	32.4 26.1
52	Median rent-to-income ratio	%	1992 1993	22 22	16 16	23 20	22 24	19 19

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
45										
15.4	11.2	17.4	13.6	13.0	10.6	1991	%	
14.8	11.1	14.2	13.8	16.2	13.5	1992	%	
47.8	34.9	43.5	37.2	36.2	39.1	1991	%	
48.9	33.6	48.3	38.3	39.8	34.1	1992	%	
19.5	14.0	22.7	17.8	16.6	15.4	1991	%	
18.7	14.0	19.9	18.1	20.2	17.1	1992	%	
20.1	17.5	29.3	21.9	19.5	14.5	1991	%	
18.3	16.2	23.3	22.8	24.2	19.8	1992	%	
27.3	19.7	24.7	12.4	21.1	21.8	1991	%	
28.9	15.9	23.6	12.1	24.0	20.8	1992	%	
2,656	3,647	396	359	912	1,278	1992	'000	46
2,688	3,765	387	361	923	1,302	1993	'000	
41,600	51,500	39,700	39,600	48,700	46,000	1991	\$	47
41,900	51,800	42,500	41,200	48,000	48,000	1992	\$	
48										
69.1	76.8	71.2	69.4	78.4	73.3	1992	%	
72.6	79.7	75.5	71.7	82.3	78.6	1993	%	
72.9	77.7	75.5	81.3	81.0	73.6	1992	%	
75.9	80.0	79.8	84.8	84.8	78.0	1993	%	
20.9	27.9	22.2	21.7	28.4	25.0	1992	%	
22.7	25.6	22.5	21.3	26.5	22.6	1993	%	
17.4	23.3	31.1	44.6	43.4	35.1	1992	%	
17.3	25.6	35.7	44.3	44.7	39.2	1993	%	
14.0	48.6	49.0	34.3	10.0	7.5	1992	%	
15.3	44.7	45.7	33.8	8.9	9.1	1993	%	
55.0	63.9	67.4	71.6	65.5	65.7	1992	%	49
56.4	64.4	69.5	71.7	67.8	66.1	1993	%	
47.3	48.0	56.2	60.3	47.9	54.5	1992	%	50
46.3	46.6	53.9	60.6	45.7	47.1	1993	%	
25.1	25.4	32.1	30.6	28.7	24.8	1992	%	51
20.7	20.9	26.6	23.8	25.7	20.4	1993	%	
20	23	23	21	21	25	1992	%	52
21	23	22	20	23	25	1993	%	

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.	Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
53 Labour force income profile							
Number of taxfilers	'000	1991	18,786	378	87	613	503
Income:							
Number reporting	'000	1991	18,711	376	87	610	501
Amount	\$ million	1991	470,165	7,196	1,730	13,392	10,264
Median	\$	1991	19,300	14,100	16,000	16,800	15,600
Canadian index (median income)	%	1991	100.0	73.1	82.9	87.0	80.8
Labour force income:							
Number reporting	'000	1991	14,231	291	68	451	372
Amount	\$ million	1991	357,250	5,745	1,308	10,066	7,809
Employment income:							
Number reporting	'000	1991	13,911	278	67	440	362
Amount	\$ million	1991	341,191	4,809	1,130	9,357	7,046
Median	\$	1991	19,500	10,300	11,700	16,600	14,300
Canadian index (median employment income)	%	1991	100.0	52.8	60.0	85.1	73.3
Self-employment income:							
Number reporting	'000	1991	1,915	31	12	52	35
Amount	\$ million	1991	20,231	222	100	667	328
Unemployment Insurance benefits:							
Number reporting	'000	1991	3,410	148	29	142	139
Amount	\$ million	1991	16,059	936	178	709	763
54 Economic dependency profile							
Transfer payments:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	80,086	2,004	459	2,926	2,451
Employment income	\$ million	1991	341,191	4,809	1,130	9,357	7,046
Economic dependency ratio (EDR)		1991	23.47	41.66	40.65	31.27	34.78
Canadian index (EDR)	%	1991	100.0	177.5	173.2	133.2	148.2
Unemployment Insurance benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	16,059	936	178	709	763
Contribution to EDR	%	1991	4.71	19.47	15.70	7.58	10.83
Family Allowance benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	2,684	64	14	89	75
Contribution to EDR	%	1991	0.79	1.32	1.23	0.95	1.06
Federal sales tax credits:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	2,530	65	14	92	80
Contribution to EDR	%	1991	0.74	1.36	1.22	0.98	1.14
Child Tax Credit benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	2,240	64	14	81	72
Contribution to EDR	%	1991	0.66	1.34	1.23	0.87	1.03
Old Age Security benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	10,960	184	55	379	298
Contribution to EDR	%	1991	3.21	3.83	4.89	4.05	4.23
CPP/QPP benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	13,336	199	55	483	340
Contribution to EDR	%	1991	3.91	4.13	4.88	5.16	4.83
Other pension benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	18,024	227	68	662	426
Contribution to EDR	%	1991	5.28	4.72	6.01	7.08	6.05
Non-taxable income/provincial tax credits:							
Amount	\$ million	1991	14,251	264	62	431	396
Contribution to EDR	%	1991	4.18	5.50	5.48	4.61	5.62

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
53										
4,770	7,021	761	643	1,698	2,262	19	32	1991	'000	
4,749	6,994	759	641	1,691	2,253	18	32	1991	'000	
109,336	193,011	16,621	13,990	44,274	58,872	518	961	1991	\$ million	
17,800	21,500	16,900	16,700	19,900	20,000	23,700	22,000	1991	\$	
92.2	111.4	87.6	86.5	103.1	103.6	122.8	114.0	1991	%	
3,509	5,371	554	486	1,376	1,707	17	28	1991	'000	
83,710	146,585	12,044	9,930	34,754	43,970	459	871	1991	\$ million	
3,410	5,264	541	479	1,354	1,671	16	28	1991	'000	
78,728	141,844	11,589	9,583	33,696	42,134	434	842	1991	\$ million	
18,800	21,800	17,000	15,000	19,500	19,900	22,800	23,700	1991	\$	
96.4	111.8	87.2	76.9	100.0	102.1	116.9	121.5	1991	%	
347	693	102	138	245	257	2	2	1991	'000	
4,241	8,292	819	1,025	1,701	2,800	18	16	1991	\$ million	
1,032	1,065	115	87	243	399	4	6	1991	'000	
4,982	4,741	455	347	1,058	1,835	26	29	1991	\$ million	
54										
20,291	30,465	3,247	2,627	5,785	9,692	55	83	1991	\$ million	
78,728	141,844	11,589	9,583	33,696	42,134	434	842	1991	\$ million	
25.77	21.48	28.02	27.41	17.17	23.00	12.64	9.91	1991		
109.8	91.5	119.4	116.8	73.2	98.0	53.9	42.2	1991	%	
4,982	4,741	455	347	1,058	1,835	26	29	1991	\$ million	
6.33	3.34	3.93	3.63	3.14	4.36	5.92	3.42	1991	%	
660	958	114	111	279	309	3	8	1991	\$ million	
0.84	0.68	0.98	1.16	0.83	0.73	0.72	1.00	1991	%	
712	841	114	99	220	286	2	4	1991	\$ million	
0.90	0.59	0.99	1.04	0.65	0.68	0.51	0.52	1991	%	
578	702	115	116	237	250	2	8	1991	\$ million	
0.73	0.49	0.99	1.21	0.70	0.59	0.55	0.96	1991	%	
2,673	4,103	545	487	789	1,439	3	5	1991	\$ million	
3.39	2.89	4.70	5.08	2.34	3.42	0.77	0.56	1991	%	
3,134	5,372	571	502	953	1,718	5	4	1991	\$ million	
3.98	3.79	4.93	5.23	2.83	4.08	1.20	0.52	1991	%	
3,716	7,677	706	580	1,338	2,610	7	6	1991	\$ million	
4.72	5.41	6.10	6.05	3.97	6.19	1.63	0.76	1991	%	
3,835	6,072	626	385	912	1,245	6	18	1991	\$ million	
4.87	4.28	5.40	4.01	2.71	2.95	1.35	2.16	1991	%	

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Notes and definitions

No.

- 1 Persons aged 15 and over who are employed or unemployed.
- 2 The labour force as a proportion of the population aged 15 and over.
- 4 Persons who usually work less than 30 hours per week.
- 7 The unemployed as a proportion of the labour force.
- 8 This rate and rates shown as Indicators 9 and 10 are described in *Perspectives on Labour and Income* (Statistics Canada, Catalogue 75-001E) 4, no. 4 (Winter 1992): 35-43.
- 9 The full-time labour force includes persons working full time, those working part time involuntarily, and unemployed persons seeking full-time work.

The part-time labour force includes persons working part time voluntarily and unemployed persons seeking part-time work.

Discouraged workers and others on the margins of the labour force are persons who have looked for work in the past six months, but not during the reference week because they believed none was available or because they were waiting for recall or for replies from employers.
- 10 The rate shows hours lost through unemployment (unemployed multiplied by average actual weekly hours) and through underemployment (that is, short-time work schedules and involuntary part-time employment) as a proportion of hours worked plus hours lost.
- 12 The number of persons employed in an age group expressed as a percentage of the population for that age group.
- 13 Employees work for an employer for remuneration, usually in the form of a wage or salary.

Self-employed workers are working owners of incorporated or unincorporated businesses with or without paid help.

No.

- 29 Data are for agreements involving bargaining units of 500 or more employees. The total includes federal and provincial agreements.
- 32 Labour income comprises gross wages and salaries (including directors' fees, bonuses, commissions, gratuities, taxable allowances and retroactive pay) and supplementary labour income (payments made by employers for the benefit of employees, including contributions to health and welfare schemes, pension plans, Workers' Compensation and Unemployment Insurance).
- 33 Labour income per employee is calculated using LFS estimates of paid workers excluding those absent without pay during the entire reference week.
- 45 For an explanation of the methodology underlying the low income cut-offs, see *Income Distributions by Size in Canada* (Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207).
- 52 The rent-to-income ratio refers to rent in the reference year divided by income in the previous year.
- 53-54 Data are derived from tax returns filed in the spring of the year following the reference year. The mailing address at the time of filing determines the province.

Economic dependency ratio:

$$\text{EDR} = \frac{\text{Total transfer payments}}{\text{Total employment income}} \times 100$$

(Example: An EDR of 23.47 indicates that for each \$100 in employment income earned by Canadians in 1991, an additional \$23.47 of income was received in the form of transfer payments.)

In the works

Here are some of the topics to be featured in upcoming issues of Perspectives on Labour and Income.

■ **The labour market: Mid-year review**

A look at the labour market and other economic indicators during the first six months of 1994.

■ **Voluntary part-time workers**

A growing number of workers are employed part time. This article looks at the majority of part-time workers who prefer to work less than 30 hours a week.

■ **Involuntary part-timers**

In 1993, 760,000 workers were obliged to accept part-time work. Because these persons would rather work full time, their involuntary work arrangement indicates a form of underemployment.

■ **Jobs! Jobs! Jobs!**

Between 1975 and 1993, part-time employment increased from 11% to 17% of total employment, but the number of part-time jobs jumped from 14% to 23% over the same period. Looking at jobs rather than employment gives a different picture of the labour market.

■ **Moonlighting has changed**

Over the last 15 years, the rate of multiple jobholding has doubled. Once largely a male domain, today nearly as many women as men moonlight.

■ **High-income families**

A profile of families in the top percentile of the income distribution by various sociodemographic variables. The analysis will cover the sources and composition of their income in 1990.

■ **An interview with David Foot**

David Foot – economist, demographer, pedagogue and futurist – comments on the past, present and future of the baby-boom generation.

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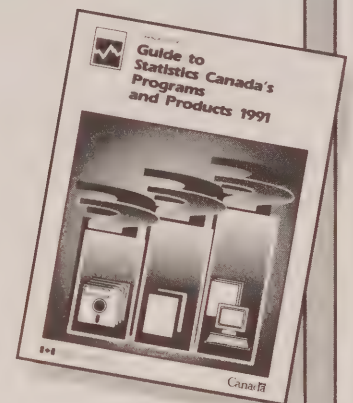
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ON LABOUR AND INCOME

AUTUMN 1994

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- PART-TIME JOBS

- VOLUNTARY
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On the cover:

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Masterfile
Freeman Patterson

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Symbols

The following standard symbols are used in Statistics Canada publications:

- .. figures not available
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Forum

Letter from the Editor-in-Chief

■ We begin this letter with the dullest of statisticians' habits – definitions. There is full and adequate justification for indulging, though, because this issue of *Perspectives* is devoted to part-time work, which has been defined in various ways at various times. The Labour Force Survey, on which most articles in this issue rely, defines part-time workers as people who "usually work less than 30 hours per week." By default, then, full-time workers "usually work 30 or more hours per week."

Part-time work – and, more generally, hours of work – is a topic of considerable debate at the moment, and the article "The hours people work" establishes the historical context in which to discuss the issue. Deborah Sunter and René Morissette show that although the standard 37- to 40-hour work week has remained virtually the same since 1960, substantial changes have occurred in the underlying distribution of hours worked in the last decade: some people put in longer work weeks and others much shorter ones.

These findings support the suspicion that dividing jobs into part-time versus full-time is now an even more artificial construct than previously acknowledged. Growth in part-time jobs is only one dimension of a more extensive transformation of the labour market. For instance, what of the 5% of employed people who hold more than one job? As Gary L. Cohen shows in "Ever more

moonlighters," this phenomenon is now twice as common as it was about 20 years ago. It has also become increasingly common to stitch together several part-time jobs rather than to supplement a full-time job with part-time work.

These new developments in multiple jobholding point to another pitfall in estimating the impact of part-time work on the labour market. Clearly, jobs can be classified as full- or part-time based on the hours of work usually required per week. However, the Labour Force Survey (LFS) counts people. For example, the LFS defines a person with two part-time jobs working a total of 30 or more hours as one full-time worker, while someone whose total hours at all jobs amount to less than 30 is considered a part-timer. Since 1 in 20 workers are multiple jobholders, the number of part-time workers will not equal the number of part-time jobs.

Assessing the actual part-time work generated by the economy, therefore, requires estimating the number of existing jobs, not only the number of people occupying them. Using this approach, Henry Pold concludes in "Jobs! Jobs! Jobs!" that there were 2.9 million part-time jobs in Canada in 1993, representing 23% of all jobs, although only 17% of workers were part-timers.

People who accept part-time jobs are classified into two groups: "involuntary" and "voluntary." Although these labels are not really satisfactory, they are widely understood and, from a communications standpoint, a considerable improvement on

the more accurate descriptors – "labour-demand-induced part-time" (involuntary) and "labour-supply-induced part-time" (voluntary). Who wants to use phrases like these?

When there are not enough full-time jobs for all those workers who want one, some people, if they are going to work at all, have no choice but to accept part-time hours. In other words, the demand for full-time labour is lacking and the resulting part-time employment is involuntary. Nathalie Noreau, in "Involuntary part-timers," estimates that in 1993 involuntary part-timers accounted for 35% of all part-time workers, more than triple the proportion in 1975. These underemployed workers numbered over three-quarters of a million, or 6% of the Canadian workforce.

Voluntary part-time work may not be the free choice that the label implies. Some of it may be voluntary only in the sense that some impediment to working full time is created by the person's own circumstances, not by the demand for labour. The classic example is the woman who is restricted to part-time work by the unavailability of child care. As it turns out, though, this classic example is not typical. Ron Logan ("Voluntary part-time workers") has demonstrated that the vast majority of these workers either attended school or did not want full-time work; only 15% had taken a part-time job because of family responsibilities or illness.

These figures provide valuable insight into the part-time work phenomenon, because there is a widespread belief, rather simplistic, that all part-time jobs are "bad" jobs. It's true that part-time employment may not have the financial rewards of some full-time jobs – wages and salaries, benefits – but if the alternative is no work at all, then part-time jobs are good jobs. Part-time employment can also enable workers to remain current with changes in the workplace and experience an easier transition to

full-time work when personal circumstances allow.

Ian Macredie
Editor-in-Chief

□

Letter to the Editor

■ I have used several articles recently from your publication *Perspectives*.

In *Perspectives* you have managed to combine good content, economy of presentation and interest. Clearly, the articles are thoroughly edited. I hope that you can keep up these standards in future presentations.

Yours sincerely,

David Slater
Economic consultant
Ottawa

□

We welcome your views on articles and other items that have appeared in *Perspectives on Labour and Income*. Additional insights on the data are also welcome, but to be considered for publication, communications should be factual and analytical. We encourage readers to inform us about their current research projects, new publications, data sources, and upcoming events relating to labour and income.

Statistics Canada reserves the right to select and edit items for publication. Correspondence, in either official language, should be addressed to: Susan Crompton, Forum and What's new? Editor, *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, 5-D Jean Talon Building, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6. Telephone (613) 951-0178; fax (613) 951-4179.

Highlights

Here are some key findings from the articles in this issue of Perspectives on Labour and Income.

The hours people work

■ At the turn of the century, workers typically put in 60-hour weeks spread over six days. By 1960, the work week was reduced to 37 to 40 hours over five days. This "standard" has changed little since then.

■ Some of the stability in the length of the work week since 1960 may be attributable to workers' opting for non-wage benefits instead of shorter weeks.

■ The overall stability of the standard work week masks changes in the distribution of hours, especially since the 1981-82 recession. By 1993, only 61% of paid workers put in 35 to 40 hours per week, down from 71% in 1976.

Jobs! Jobs! Jobs!

■ This article looks at full- and part-time jobs rather than the conventional measures of full- and part-time workers.

■ Almost half (46%) of the 3.5 million additional jobs over the last 18 years have come from part-time jobs. By 1993, almost one-quarter of all jobs provided less than 30 hours of work per week.

■ Since 1975, the number of part-time jobs has increased every year (at an average annual rate of 4.5%), reaching 2.9 million in 1993. The number of full-time jobs, while also generally increasing over the two decades (1.2% annually), fell sharply during the last two recessions.

■ By 1993, almost 20% of part-time jobs (581,000) belonged to self-employed individuals (versus less than 12% in 1975). The large majority of these jobs were one-person operations. More than half (56%) of part-time jobs were filled by 25 to 54 year-olds in 1993, up from 48% in 1975. In contrast, the share held by youths (15 to 24 years) fell from 40% to only 34%.

■ The three industries with the highest proportions of part-time jobs in 1993 – accommodation, food and beverage services; other services; and retail trade – all deal directly with individual consumers.

Voluntary part-time workers

■ For a variety of reasons, many part-time workers do not want or cannot take full-time employment. In 1993, 43% of voluntary part-timers were attending school, and an almost equal number (42%) said that they were simply not interested in a full-time job. Another 13% cited personal or family responsibilities, while 2% were constrained by illness or disability.

■ Since 1975, the number of voluntary part-time workers has increased by 57% (to 1.4 million), compared with a 33% increase in total employment. By 1993, voluntary part-time workers represented 11.2% of all employment versus 9.5% in 1975. However, as a percentage of all part-time workers, the proportion of voluntary workers has fluctuated with the business cycle.

■ Although women made up 45% of the total workforce in 1993, they constituted 71% of voluntary part-time workers. One in five women working part time because of personal or family responsibilities was self-employed.

■ Voluntary part-timers are relatively young. In 1993, 15 to 24 year-olds made up 44% of all voluntary part-timers, but just 16% of all workers.

■ Three occupation groups – service, clerical, and sales – accounted for almost two-thirds of voluntary part-timers, but less than half of all workers.

Involuntary part-timers

■ An average of 760,000 workers were forced to accept part-time work because they were unable to find full-time jobs. In 1993, they represented 35% of all part-time workers in Canada. This proportion has more than tripled since the mid-1970s.

■ Involuntary part-time employment tends to follow the business cycle and moves in tandem with unemployment. Both these indicators declined during the expansion years between 1983 and 1989. But while the unemployment rate returned to its 1980 level, the involuntary part-time rate remained well above what it had been in 1980. Therefore, the overall improvement in the employment situation concealed persistent underemployment.

■ Women constitute the majority of involuntary part-timers. A total of 510,000 women were involuntary part-time workers in 1993, more than double the number of men (250,000). For both men and women, proportions peak at ages 25 to 44.

■ Involuntary part-time employment varies according to industry. In 1993, rates for men were higher in the goods-producing sector than in services, whereas in 1980 the rates had been virtually identical. By contrast, women in services continued to have a higher rate than those in goods throughout the period.

Ever more moonlighters

■ Back in the 1970s, most moonlighters were men. Today, nearly as many women as men moonlight. The incidence of multiple jobholding has climbed much more sharply for women (from 1.8% in 1977 to 5.3% in 1993) than for men (2.8% to 4.9%).

■ Multiple jobholding is more prevalent among highly educated workers. In 1993, the rate among workers with an advanced education (either a postsecondary certificate/diploma or a university degree) was 5.7% compared with 4.5% for other workers.

■ Individuals holding more than one job in 1993 were more likely to work in the service sector (5.3%) than in the goods sector (4.4%). Agriculture recorded the highest industry rate (8.3%), followed by education services (7.2%) and health and social services (6.5%).

■ Moonlighting is much more common among workers whose main job is part-time (usually less than 30 hours per week) than among those whose main job is full-time. In 1993, the rate was 8.4% among "part-timers," but only 4.3% among "full-timers."

■ The incidence of multiple jobholding varies considerably by province. In 1993, Saskatchewan had the highest rate (10.1%), followed by Manitoba (8.4%) and Alberta (7.6%); Newfoundland had by far the lowest (2.7%).

What's new ?

■ The 1991 *Focus on Canada* series comprises 11 reports that cover a wide array of topics including population dynamics, the labour market and income issues.

■ The 1991 *Census Technical Reports: Income* describes the concepts, definitions and methods used to collect and process the income data gathered by the 1991 Census.

■ The Employment Equity Data Program provides statistical information on Canadians who are members of the designated groups as recognized in employment equity legislation. Two new electronic products carry databases describing the socio-economic characteristics of these groups.

■ The Survey of Consumer Finances collects data on the income of Canadians,

linking it to demographic and labour force characteristics to create a portrait of the economic well-being of Canadians. Annual survey results are published in six reports released every four to six weeks, beginning in December every year.

■ Two new research papers are available from the Analytical Studies Branch. *What is Happening to Earnings Inequality in Canada?* explores the main forces contributing to changes in earnings inequality. *Structural Change in the Canadian Manufacturing Sector (1970-1990)* examines five broad areas of this sector.

■ On September 30, *Perspectives on Labour and Income* will host its second annual symposium. The one-day event will examine the myths and realities of the situation of older workers in the labour force. It will also identify the challenges faced by the labour market as well as policy and program needs as Canada's workers age.

■ *Challenges of Measuring an Ethnic World: Science, Politics and Reality* presents the proceedings of the first international conference on the collection of statistics on race and ethnicity. □

The hours people work

Deborah Sunter and René Morissette

At the turn of the century, workers typically put in 60-hour weeks spread over six days. By 1960, 37 to 40 hours during a five-day week had become the "standard." This standard still prevails. It has been set by custom, or negotiated by collective bargaining, and is reinforced by legislation requiring premium pay for time worked in excess of the standard (see *What is overtime?*). The standard week tends to coincide with a notion of adequate employment – adequate to meet both employers' goals of efficient production and employees' physical and financial needs. Nonetheless, the length of the work week varies considerably for individual workers: in 1993, 4 out of 10 usually put in either less than 35 or more than 40 hours a week.

Historically, efforts were concentrated on reducing the length of the work week in the interests of health, safety, and productivity. Today, long hours are still a concern, but the focus is on workers' ability to juggle the demands of employment and family, and the potential for job creation through a redistribution of longer-than-standard hours. At the same time, the recent increase in jobs offering less-than-standard hours (part-time jobs) is also an issue. Not only are such jobs

associated with lower earnings opportunities than full-time employment, but they also tend to provide less security and fewer fringe benefits (Coates, 1988).

Since 1900, hours of work have gone through three phases: reduction, stabilization, and polarization.

The first 60 years ... the standard falls

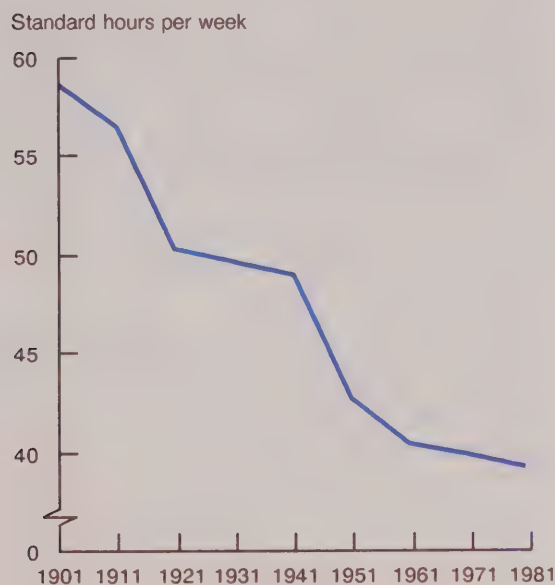
The longest consistent data series on hours worked pertains to the manufacturing sector and reflects widespread trends in the evolution of the standard work week (Ostry and Zaidi, 1979; Reid, 1985). Standard weekly hours in manufacturing fell from 59 in 1901 to 40 in 1957. This decline, however, was not steady, as the sharpest drops occurred in the first 20 years of the century and in the postwar years of 1946 to 1957.

Between 1901 and 1921, the standard manufacturing work week fell by 8 hours. This meant that, each year, the standard work week declined by about half an hour. From 1921 to 1946, the downward trend continued, but at a much slower pace. In fact, over this period, the standard work week fell by only one and a half hours (an average annual decline of about 4 minutes). But the next 11 years saw a dramatic reduction in hours worked. In 1957, the work week was 40 hours, 9 hours less than in 1946 (a drop of more than three-quarters of an hour a year). Most of this decline had occurred by 1949. (Chart A).

Deborah Sunter is with the Household Surveys Division. She can be reached at (613) 951-4740. René Morissette is with the Business and Labour Market Analysis Group. He can be reached at (613) 951-3608.

Chart A

Hours of work in manufacturing dropped sharply early in the century and after World War II.



Source: Reid, F. (see References)

Since 1960 ... stabilization

By the 1960s, almost 7 out of 10 full-time employees worked standard hours. In addition, the declining trend in work hours seemed so well established that some economists considered a 32-hour week inevitable and imminent (Hameed, 1974). However, the length of the standard work week levelled off. For example, between 1964 and 1979, weekly manufacturing hours fell by less than an hour. Standard hours for all industries fell slightly more over this period – from 40.1 to 38.3 (Reid, 1985). Since then, the length of the standard work week has barely changed.

The last 20 years ... polarization

But although the length of the standard work week has stabilized, standard hours have

What is overtime?

Standard hours per se are not defined by law. Nonetheless, legislation does stipulate limits above which scheduled hours are considered overtime and become more costly to employers. Legislation concerning overtime varies by jurisdiction. Overtime pay is applicable for hours worked in excess of 40 per week for workers under the jurisdiction of the federal government and all workers in British Columbia, Manitoba, Saskatchewan and the Yukon. The weekly limit is 44 hours for workers in Alberta, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, Ontario, Quebec and the Northwest Territories, and 48 hours in Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island (Labour Canada, 1993).

actually become less common, particularly since the 1981-82 recession.

By 1993, only 61% of paid workers put in 35 to 40 hours per week, down from 71% in 1976, with most of the shift going into shorter hours (Table 1). This overall drop was strongly influenced by a sharp reduction in the hours worked by youths. The proportion of 15 to 24 year-old workers with less-than-standard hours more than doubled, from 24% in 1976 to 51% in 1993. By contrast, for adults, the trend has been to a somewhat more polarized work week.

Among adult men, the distribution of hours worked was stable between 1976 and 1981: 77% worked standard hours, 19% longer hours, and only 4% shorter hours. By 1993, however, the incidence of standard hours had declined to 70%, while 22% worked longer hours and 8%, shorter hours.

The distribution of hours worked among adult women followed a different pattern. Weekly hours were more polarized in 1993 than in 1976, but this was the result of shifts to shorter hours before 1981, and to longer hours since then. In 1993, 61% of adult women worked standard hours, down from 66% in 1976. Almost a third (31%) worked less, while 8% worked more in 1993.

Table 1
Distribution of employees by usual
weekly hours worked at main job, 1976 to
1993 (selected years)

	Usual weekly hours			Average hours worked
	1-34	35-40	41 and over	
	%			
1976	16	71	13	37.6
Youths	24	66	10	34.9
Adult men	4	77	19	41.1
Adult women	28	66	6	34.1
1981	18	69	12	36.9
Youths	28	62	10	34.0
Adult men	4	77	18	40.8
Adult women	30	64	5	33.6
1984	21	67	13	36.5
Youths	35	55	9	32.4
Adult men	5	75	19	40.8
Adult women	30	64	6	33.6
1989	21	65	14	36.6
Youths	40	51	10	31.5
Adult men	5	73	21	41.1
Adult women	29	63	7	34.2
1993	24	61	14	36.0
Youths	51	40	8	28.7
Adult men	8	70	22	40.8
Adult women	31	61	8	34.0

Source: Labour Force Survey

Note: Youths: 15-24 years; adult men and women: 25 years and over

Reasons for ...

... the reduction

Growth in productivity and real earnings, rather than changes in legislation, provided the momentum for the sharp decline in work hours over most of the first 60 years of the century (Tandan, 1972). As technology advanced, workers produced the same amount in less time. Both employers and employees enjoyed the benefits of growing productivity through higher profits and rising real wages. This meant that workers could trade some potential wage gains for more leisure and still experience an increase in their standard of living. And as long as

productivity grew fast enough to keep reduced hours cost-neutral, it was in the employers' interest to accommodate worker and union demands for more free time.

... the stabilization

After 1960, the length of the standard work week "stabilized" despite strong growth in productivity (until the late 1960s) and continued growth in real wages (until the late 1970s), the very conditions that led to the decline in the first half of the century. Labour market analysts offer a variety of supply- and demand-side explanations for this levelling off.

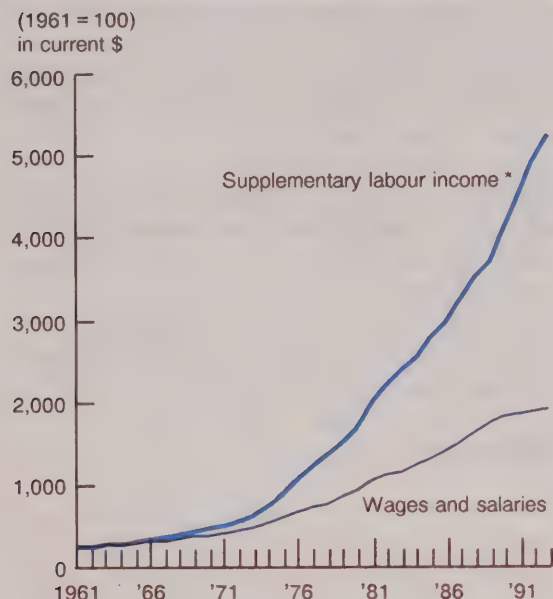
On the supply side, workers were investing in more years of education. Once employed, pressure to recoup the costs of school and foregone wages as quickly as possible made them less likely to trade wage gains for shorter hours. At the same time, a trend to earlier retirement further shortened the portion of the life-cycle devoted to paid work (Table 2). This left fewer earning-years during which workers could save for a comfortable retirement.

Table 2
Life and working-life expectancies for
men, at age 16, 1921 to 1986

	Life expectancy	Working-life expectancy	Proportion of life expectancy in the labour force
	Years		%
	Not accounting for intermittent entries and exits		
1921	51.8	46.8	90.3
1931	52.5	47.1	89.7
1941	53.2	47.2	88.7
1951	54.5	46.9	86.1
1961	55.2	47.0	85.1
1971	55.4	46.4	83.8
1986	57.9	44.6	77.0
	Accounting for intermittent entries and exits		
1986	57.9	40.0	69.2

Source: Bélanger, A. and D. Larrivée (see References)

Chart B

Employee benefits have grown more than earnings.

Source: Labour Division

* Includes contributions to health and welfare schemes, pension plans, Workers' Compensation and Unemployment Insurance.

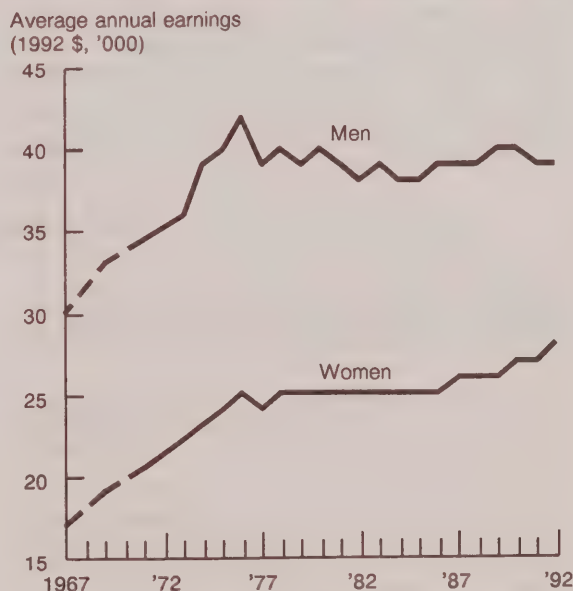
In addition, workers may have preferred to take their share of increased productivity in non-wage benefits instead of shorter weeks. For example, the average annual vacation in manufacturing rose from 2.7 weeks in 1959 to 3.6 weeks in 1979. Paid holidays also increased over the same period, from 7.8 to 11.1 days per year (Reid, 1985).

Improvements were made in other non-wage benefits as well. Employers' payroll contributions to health and dental care and pension plans, and to mandatory programs such as Unemployment Insurance, the Canada and Quebec Pension Plan, and Workers' Compensation almost doubled from 4.6% of labour income in 1961 to 8.7% in 1979 (Chart B).

On the demand side, employers had little incentive to reduce the standard work week below 35 to 40 hours, since further reductions were unlikely to yield a proportionate increase in productivity (Tandan, 1972; Hameed, 1974). Shorter hours could even have a negative effect on productivity, as daily "gearing up" and "gearing down" would take a greater proportion of paid work hours.

Many of the factors underlying the stability of standard hours in the 1960s and 1970s persisted into the 1980s and 1990s: benefits have increased to 12% of labour income in 1993, educational attainment has continued to rise, and early retirement has become more common. Most important, virtually no growth has occurred in the real wages of full-time, full-year workers (Chart C). Thus, workers have had no potential

Chart C

Earnings of full-time, full-year workers have changed little since the mid-1970s.

Source: Survey of Consumer Finances

Note: Data are not available for 1968 and 1970.

wage gains to exchange for added leisure. Employers were also unlikely to support a reduction in hours without a proportionate reduction in wages, since the growth rate of productivity continued to be slow in the 1980s.

Furthermore, with rapid technological advances, employers have increasingly invested in their long-term, full-time staff through job-specific training (Crompton, 1994). Shorter hours for these workers would mean a smaller return on that investment.

... the polarization

The overall stability of the standard work week masks changes in the distribution of hours, especially since the 1981-82 recession. Several explanations have been proposed for the rising share of workers putting in non-standard hours.

Much of the increase in below-standard hours appears voluntary, and suits the needs of a growing number of women and students (Logan, in this issue). On the other hand, it may also be a business response to rising costs and competition and not to workers' needs (Noreau, in this issue).

The increasing incidence of above-standard work weeks may be part of the same response. While part-timers and casual

workers enable an enterprise to meet shifting levels of demand with minimal current and future costs, not all tasks are easily divisible, and not all workers are substitutable. Long work weeks may be required of those with specialized technical skills or management responsibilities, and may be encouraged by pay-for-performance schemes (Booth, 1987).

As yet, explanations for the simultaneous growth in both short and long work weeks are little more than anecdotal. But trends in work hours are sure to receive continued attention, as further polarization will tend to accentuate inequality in employment opportunities and earnings (Morissette et al, 1993).

Summary

Over the first 60 years of the century, standard hours fell sharply, fuelled by growth in productivity and wages. Since 1960, there has been little reduction in the standard work week. However, other work conditions, such as vacations, benefits, and pensions, have improved. And while the majority of workers continue to put in standard hours, the proportion working either shorter or longer weeks is rising. □

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Perspectives on Labour and Income

The quarterly for labour market and income information

Jobs! Jobs! Jobs!

Henry Pold

Employment. Jobs. What's the difference? Well over half a million in 1993. Between 1975 and 1993, the number of workers in Canada climbed from 9.3 million to 12.4 million. Over the same period, the number of jobs went from 9.5 million to 13.0 million. Typically, one worker represents one job, but the number of workers with more than one job has grown rapidly over the last two decades – by 1993 moonlighters totalled 628,000 (Cohen, in this issue).

Equating employment with jobs distorts estimates of job creation (or job loss). A second job taken by someone who is already working does not increase employment, as conventionally measured by the Labour Force Survey (LFS) which counts workers rather than jobs. Similarly, the loss of one job by a moonlighter does not decrease the number of workers. A more serious statistical presentation problem, however, occurs in the count of part-time jobs. In regular LFS publications, individuals who usually work 30 hours or more per week at two jobs (for example, 24 hours and 8 hours) are counted as full-time workers. In 1993, 17% of workers were part-timers, but 23% of jobs were part time. Given the current interest in hours worked (Sunter and Morissette, in this issue) and the growth in part-time work (Logan, Noreau, in this issue), this note provides a brief overview of part-time jobs from 1975 to 1993.

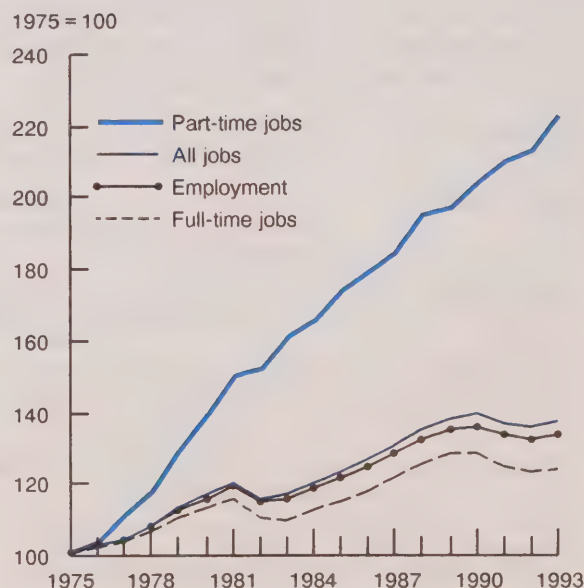
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Jobs and employment

Counting workers with two jobs twice provides a more accurate estimate of the total number of occupied jobs in the Canadian economy. (Even this is a slight underestimate, because a small number of individuals work at more than two jobs in the same week.) Each job can be classified as full- or part-time based on its usual weekly hours: full-time being 30 or more; part-time, less than 30.

Chart A

Part-time jobs have more than doubled since 1975.



Source: Labour Force Survey

Part-time jobs expanding more rapidly

Since 1975, the number of part-time jobs has increased every year (at an average annual rate of 4.5%), reaching 2.9 million in 1993, for a total growth of more than 120% (Chart A). The number of full-time jobs, while also generally increasing over the two decades (1.2% annually), fell sharply during each of the last two recessions. By 1993, the number of full-time jobs was only 23% higher than in 1975. As a result of the different growth rates, part-time jobs accounted for 23% of all jobs in 1993, compared with only 14% in 1975.

Every province shared in the part-time job expansion, with the most rapid growth occurring in Alberta (5.3% annually) and the slowest in Prince Edward Island (3.0%) (Table 1). Alberta also had the highest yearly growth rate for full-time jobs, tied with British Columbia at 2.2%. Manitoba and Saskatchewan had the lowest (0.4%). Consequently, by 1993, the highest proportions of part-time jobs were in Saskatchewan and Manitoba, 29% and 27% respectively. The lowest rate, 17%, was in Newfoundland (Chart B).

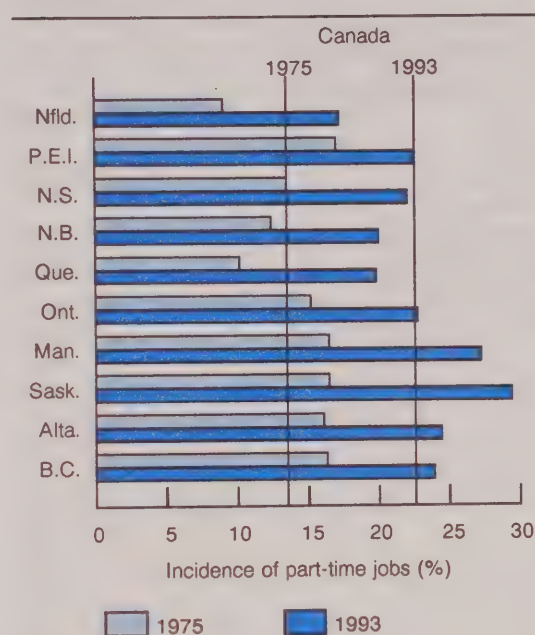
Table 1
Compound annual growth rates: 1975-93

	Employ- ment	All jobs	Full-time jobs	Part-time jobs
	%			
Canada	1.6	1.8	1.2	4.5
Newfoundland	1.2	1.2	0.7	4.9
Prince Edward Island	1.4	1.4	1.0	3.0
Nova Scotia	1.1	1.2	0.6	4.0
New Brunswick	1.5	1.6	1.1	4.3
Quebec	1.1	1.2	0.5	4.9
Ontario	1.6	1.8	1.2	4.1
Manitoba	0.9	1.2	0.4	4.1
Saskatchewan	1.0	1.4	0.4	4.6
Alberta	2.6	2.8	2.2	5.3
British Columbia	2.5	2.7	2.2	5.0

Source: Labour Force Survey

Chart B

Part-time jobs are most prevalent in the western provinces.



Source: Labour Force Survey

Entrepreneurs thriving

Although paid jobs (that is, where an employee receives a wage or salary from an employer) continue to predominate, their share of all part-time jobs has declined steadily. By 1993, almost 20% of part-time jobs (581,000) belonged to self-employed individuals, compared with less than 12% in 1975 (Table 2). Over 80% of these jobs were one-person operations.

More than half the part-time entrepreneurs were women – indeed, more than a third were women aged 25 to 54, whereas men in this age group accounted for only 28%. And almost half of all enterprising part-timers were found in just three industry groups – other services¹ (25%); retail trade (13%); and agriculture (10%) – and just two occupational groups – managerial and professional (28%), and service (22%).

Table 2
Part-time jobs by type

	1975		1993	
	'000	%	'000	%
Total part-time jobs	1,325	100	2,949	100
Paid	1,116	84	2,310	78
Self-employed	153	12	581	20
Without employees	126	9	479	16
With employees	27	2	102	3
Unpaid family work	57	4	59	2

Source: Labour Force Survey

Middle-age spread

By 1993, the majority (56%) of part-time jobs were filled by 25 to 54 year-olds, up from 48% in 1975. In contrast, the share held by youths (15 to 24 years) fell from 40% to only 34%. Nonetheless, young people have by far the highest rates of part-time jobs – 43% for men and 54% for women in 1993, compared with just 9% and 27% respectively for 25 to 54 year-olds. For workers aged 55 or older, the gap between the sexes was even wider, with part-time job rates of 16% for men versus 38% for women in this group.

While the rates increased in each age group for both sexes between 1975 and 1993, the changes were most dramatic for youths, as the rates more than doubled for both men and women (Chart C).

Consumer services driving part-time jobs

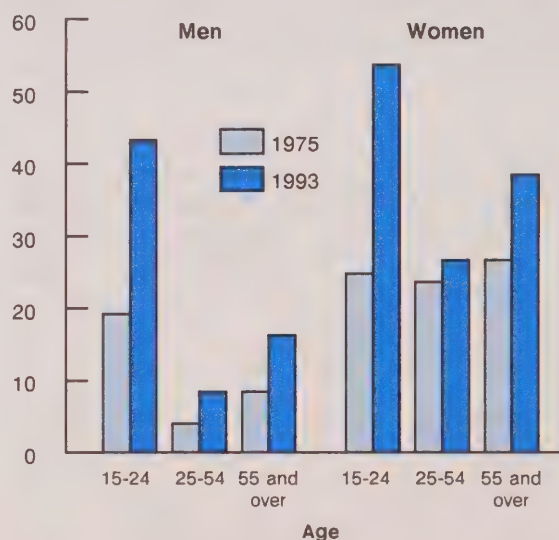
Where are part-time jobs most likely to be found? In 1975, the service sector had higher rates of part-time jobs than the goods-producing sector; by 1993, the disparity between them had widened even more. Agriculture, in fact, is the only goods-producing industry with an above-average rate of part-time jobs. By 1993, some 87% of part-time jobs were in the service sector, compared with 71% of full-time jobs.

The three industries with the highest proportions of part-time jobs – accommodation, food and beverage services; other services; and retail trade – all deal directly with individual consumers (Chart D). Businesses in these industries must respond to fluctuating and often highly concentrated levels of activity. They need peak staff levels for only short periods, hence the high rates of part-time jobs. On the other hand, consumers have little immediate impact on job levels in manufacturing and other primary industries. In these industries, because demand is set primarily by other businesses, time horizons are longer and staff levels can be more constant, so part-time jobs are less useful.

Chart C

Regardless of age, women are more likely to hold part-time jobs.

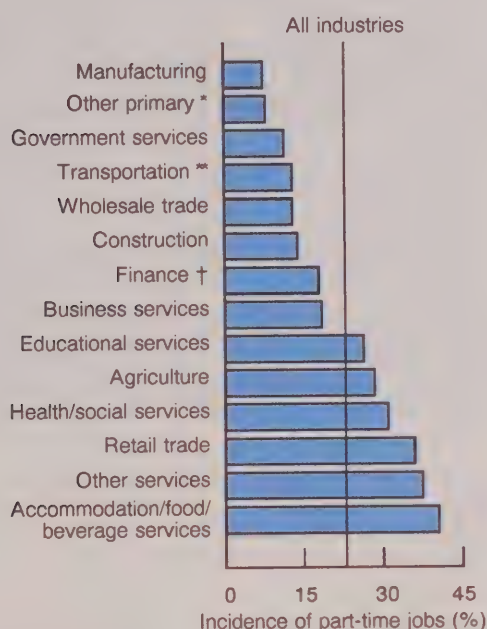
Incidence of part-time jobs (%)



Source: Labour Force Survey

Chart D

Part-time jobs are most common in consumer-oriented industries.



Source: Labour Force Survey, 1993

* Fishing and trapping, logging and forestry, and mining, quarrying and oil wells

** Transportation and storage, and communication and other utilities

† Finance and insurance, and real estate operators and insurance agents

By and large, the occupational distribution of part-time jobs reflects that by industry – the highest incidence being in service and sales occupations; the lowest in processing, machining and fabricating. Nonetheless, all occupations had increases in the proportion of part-time jobs over the 1975 to 1993 period.

Summary

Employment increases have been relatively modest in the last few years. But if the continual increase in multiple jobholding is taken into account, job creation has been better than generally perceived. However, almost half (46%) the increase of 3.5 million jobs between 1975 and 1993 came from part-time jobs, so that by 1993 nearly one-quarter of all jobs provided less than 30 hours of work per week.

The trend to part-time jobs has been especially pronounced in the service sector. And higher growth rates among the self-employed have decreased the proportion of paid jobs. Whether the increase in part-time jobs is "good" or "bad" can be debated, but any discussion of job creation should distinguish between the number of people working and the number of jobs that are occupied. □

Note

¹ Other services comprises amusement and recreational services, personal and household services, and miscellaneous services. Amusement and recreation is by far the largest component.

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Voluntary part-time workers

Ron Logan

Growth in the number of part-time workers has been a characteristic of the Canadian labour market for the last two decades. This growth has concerned some labour market analysts, who contend that part-time jobs are inferior to full-time jobs, providing lower earnings, substandard fringe benefits, and diminished job security.¹ Such concern has been heightened by the increasing number of people who work part time because they cannot find full-time jobs (Noreau, in this issue). However, according to the Labour Force Survey, most part-timers are **not** interested in full-time employment.

Part-time workers, that is, people who usually work less than 30 hours a week at all jobs, are customarily divided into two groups: "involuntary" and "voluntary." Those who work part time because they cannot find full-time employment are involuntary part-time workers. The rest, who have various motivations for their part-time schedules, are voluntary part-timers.

But like many labels, "voluntary part-time worker" does not convey a complete or necessarily accurate picture. It includes not only workers who do not **want** a full-time job, but also persons whose circumstances (illness and disability, or responsibilities such as the care of children or the elderly) **prevent** them from working full time. For some of these people, the term "voluntary" is a misnomer.

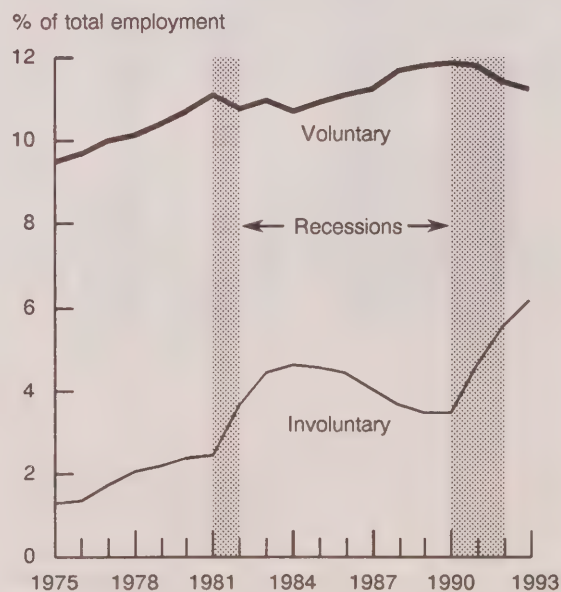
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Trends in part-time employment

The Labour Force Survey (see *Data source*) shows that since 1975, there has been a 57% increase in the number of voluntary part-time workers, compared with a 33% increase in total employment. By 1993, voluntary part-timers numbered almost 1.4 million and represented 11.2% of all employment versus 9.5% in 1975 (Chart A).

Chart A

Economic conditions affect the relative shares of voluntary and involuntary part-time workers.



Source: Labour Force Survey

Data source

The data in this article are annual averages from Statistics Canada's monthly Labour Force Survey. The time series starts in 1975, the earliest year for which consistent data are available.

Full- and part-time employment are determined on the basis of the total number of hours usually worked each week at all jobs. A person employed in the reference week and who usually works less than 30 hours a week is a part-time worker. Respondents are asked why they usually work less than 30 hours a week. Answers to this question are used to identify the various groups of voluntary part-time workers.

Occupation and class-of-worker data refer to the respondent's main job, whereas average usual weekly hours are calculated on the basis of all jobs held. However, in 1993, less than 5% of voluntary part-time workers had more than one job, so the effect of this discrepancy is negligible.

However, the 1993 figure was down from the all-time high of 1.5 million in 1990. This is because the number of voluntary part-time workers is sensitive to business cycles. Like the full-time workforce, their ranks tend to increase in periods of economic expansion and decline in recessions.

While voluntary part-timers still account for the majority of part-time workers, their share has fallen relative to involuntary part-timers. In 1993, they made up 65% of all part-time workers, a considerable drop from 89% in 1975. This was not a steady decline, as again, there was a cyclical effect. The proportion dipped to 71% in the mid-1980s and then rose to 78% by the end of the decade.

Characteristics of voluntary part-time workers

The characteristics of voluntary part-timers distinguish them from the overall workforce (Table 1). Women are far more likely than men to be voluntary part-time workers. In 1993, 17% of employed women were voluntary part-timers, almost three times the rate of employed men (6%). Nonetheless, the

Table 1
Total employment and voluntary part-time workers, selected characteristics, 1993

	Total employment	Voluntary part-time workers
Number ('000)	12,383	1,383
Average usual weekly hours	38	15
	%	
Increase (1975-93)	33	57
Both sexes	100	100
Men	55	29
Women	45	71
All ages	100	100
15-24 years	16	44
25-34 years	27	15
35-44 years	28	16
45-54 years	19	11
55 years and over	10	13
All occupations	100	100
Managerial and professional	32	23
Clerical	16	22
Sales	10	16
Service	14	26
Primary	5	5
Processing, machining and fabricating	11	2
Construction	5	1
Transportation	4	1
Material handling	3	3
Self-employment rate*	15	16

Source: Labour Force Survey

* Includes self-employed workers in incorporated and unincorporated businesses, with or without paid help.

Note: Estimates may not add to totals due to rounding.

voluntary part-time component of the male workforce has risen from 4.5% in 1975, compared with a slight decline among female workers (from 18%).

Not only do women have a higher rate of voluntary part-time work, but they also represent the majority of voluntary part-timers. Although women made up 45% of the total workforce in 1993, they constituted 71% of voluntary part-time workers.²

Voluntary part-timers are also relatively young. In 1993, 15 to 24 year-olds made up 44% of all voluntary part-timers, but just 16% of all workers. Three occupational groups – service, clerical, and sales – accounted for almost two-thirds of voluntary part-timers, but less than half of all workers.

The characteristics of voluntary part-timers differ, however, depending on their motivation for adopting this work arrangement.

Reasons for voluntary part-time work

The Labour Force Survey identifies four reasons for voluntarily working part time: school attendance, not wanting full-time work, personal or family responsibilities, and illness or disability. In 1993, 43% of voluntary part-timers were attending school, and an almost equal number (42%) said they did not want a full-time job. Another 13% cited personal or family responsibilities, while 2% were constrained by illness or disability.

The ranking of these motivations has changed recently. From 1975 to 1991, not wanting a full-time job was the leading reason for voluntary part-time work, and school attendance stood second (Chart B).

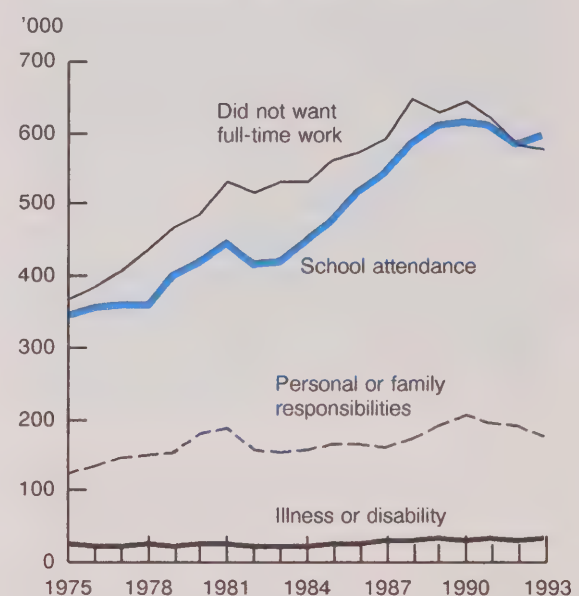
Reasons for voluntarily working part time vary with age. Young part-timers are likely to be students. At older ages, illness and disability, and not wanting a full-time job figure more prominently as reasons for working part time. Family or personal responsibilities tend to be cited by women in their prime child-bearing years. Consequently, the four groups of voluntary part-timers, classified according to their reason for working part time, comprise people with very different characteristics.

Learning and earning

Students are the fastest growing group of voluntary part-timers. By 1993, they

Chart B

In 1992, school attendance became the leading reason for voluntary part-time work.



Source: Labour Force Survey

numbered 593,000, up 73% from 1975. This reflects both rising school enrolment and the increasing tendency for students to work (Sunter, 1992). Nonetheless, the 1993 total was down from the 1990 peak of 612,000 (Sunter, 1994).

Women employed part time because of school attendance (52%) slightly outnumbered men in 1993. However, this female majority is a relatively recent development: from 1975 to the early 1980s, more male than female part-timers were attending school.

As might be expected, voluntary part-time workers who are students tend to be young. In 1993, 91% of both men and women in this situation were 15 to 24 year-olds (Table 2).

Table 2
Voluntary part-time workers by reason for part-time work, selected characteristics, 1993

	School attendance		Did not want full-time work		Personal or family responsibilities	Illness or disability
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Both*	Both**
Number ('000)	283	310	99	477	175	29
Average usual weekly hours	13	12	16	17	16	15
	%					
All ages	100	100	100	100	100	100
15-24 years	91	91	25	8	6	--
25-34 years	8	7	6	18	41	16
35-44 years	--	2	6	29	36	26
45-54 years	--	--	8	24	11	26
55 years and over	--	--	55	21	7	26
All occupations	100	100	100	100	100	100
Managerial and professional	12	14	29	30	35	19
Clerical	10	27	6	29	27	14
Sales	21	20	17	13	11	13
Service	33	36	19	21	17	28
Primary	7	2	8	4	7	--
Processing, machining and fabricating	4	1	5	1	--	--
Construction	2	--	4	--	--	--
Transportation	2	--	5	1	--	--
Material handling	10	1	5	--	--	--
Self-employment rate†	7	10	38	17	21	32

Source: Labour Force Survey

* The number of men working part time because of personal or family responsibilities (6,500) is too small to allow meaningful cross-tabulations.

** The number of people working part time because of illness or disability is too small to allow meaningful cross-tabulations by sex.

† Includes self-employed workers in incorporated and unincorporated businesses, with or without paid help.

Note: Estimates may not add to totals due to rounding.

Students voluntarily working part time cluster in service and sales occupations. In 1993, 34% were in service occupations, and of those, over half worked in food, beverage and related services;³ sales positions accounted for another 21%.

Of all voluntary part-timers, students had the lowest percentage of managerial or

professional jobs (13%). This is not surprising, since most students are still in the process of acquiring the credentials usually mandatory for such positions.

The demands of attending school are evident in the lowest average usual hours of work of all voluntary part-timers: 13 hours a week for men and 12 for women.

Family ties

Personal or family responsibilities prompted a total of 175,000 people to work part time in 1993. This figure was a 45% increase over 1975, but a decline from the 1990 high of 205,000.

Virtually all (96%) these part-timers were women, and they were concentrated in the prime child-bearing and -rearing years. In 1993, 55% of these women had at least one child under age 6 at home, and another 28% had a child aged 6 to 15.

Of all female part-timers, women citing personal or family responsibilities have the highest representation in managerial or professional occupations. In 1993, 35% of them held such positions, many of which were in nursing or teaching. As well, 20% of women working part time because of personal or family responsibilities were self-employed, double the proportion for female workers in general. And despite their other commitments, women who worked part time for these reasons put in relatively long hours: an average of 16 a week.

Illness and disability

Few people work part time because of illness or disability: just 29,000 in 1993. In fact, since 1975, the total exceeded 30,000 only once (1989).

In 1993, the majority of workers employed part time because of illness or disability were women. However, their predominance was not overwhelming (54%), and they have not always been the majority. Age was also a factor for this group, 26% of whom were 55 or older in 1993.

The most common occupations of both men and women working part time because of illness or disability were in service occupations, followed by managerial or professional positions. As well, the rate of self-employment was high: 32%.

People working part time because of illness or disability averaged 15 hours a week on the job.

Part time by choice

Many part-time workers report that they are simply not interested in full-time employment. In 1993, 576,000 people worked part time because they did not want a full-time job. This was a 58% increase over 1975, but a considerable drop from the 1988 high of 647,000.

While most (83%) workers who did not want a full-time job were women, the proportion of men in this category has risen from 14% to 17% since 1975.

To some extent, not wanting full-time employment is a catch-all category. Reasons for working part time depend on individual perceptions and are not mutually exclusive. Thus, this group includes some individuals who could have given another reason for working part time.

For example, in 1993, close to half (46%) of female part-timers who said they did not want a full-time job had at least one child under 16 at home. Totalling 221,000, they outnumbered women working part time because of personal or family responsibilities. Presumably, some of these women could also have stated "personal or family responsibilities" as their reason for working part time.

As well, about 6,500 people who said they did not want full-time employment were full-time students. Potentially, they might also have given school attendance as their reason for working part time.

On the other hand, there is probably less uncertainty about the motivations of older men who state that they do not want a full-time job. In 1993, over half of them were 55 or over, an age when a part-time job may be an alternative or a prelude to full retirement.

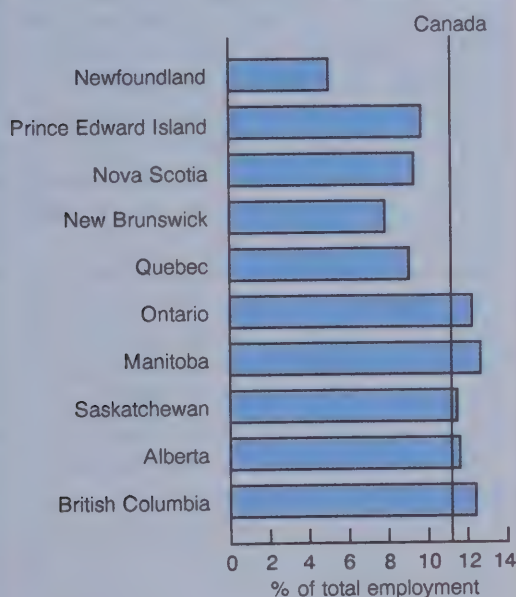
The age distributions of men and women working part time because they do not want full-time work diverge dramatically. Men tend to be either near the end of their working years or just entering the workforce, whereas the distribution of women is much more even.

Provincial differences

The prevalence of voluntary part-time work varies across the country (Chart). In 1993, the highest rate of voluntary part-time work was 12.7% in Manitoba. Rates were also above the national average of 11.2% in Ontario, the Prairie provinces, and British Columbia. Newfoundland had an exceptionally low rate of just 5.1%, while rates in Quebec and the Maritimes were in the 8% to 10% range. (The Labour Force Survey does not cover persons living in the Yukon and the Northwest Territories.)

The relative importance of different reasons for part-time work also varies by province. In 1993, school attendance was the leading reason east of Ontario, while not wanting a full-time job was reported as the main motivation in the Prairie provinces and British Columbia.

Voluntary part-time work by province, 1993



Source: Labour Force Survey

A substantial share of people working part time by choice are in occupations that may enable them to exercise some autonomy. The largest occupational group for men was managerial or professional (29%). Another 19% were in service occupations and 17% were in sales. Among women, the leading occupational group was also managerial or professional (30%). Almost as many (29%), however, were in clerical jobs, while 21% worked in service occupations.

High self-employment rates among men (38%) and women (17%) choosing part-time over full-time work also indicate that they may have some freedom in arranging their schedules.

People who work part time by choice put in relatively long hours. In 1993, women in this situation averaged 17 hours a week, while the average for men was 16 hours.

Conclusion

For a large group of workers, part-time work is the option that best fits their responsibilities and lifestyle. A part-time job enables students to go to school, earn money, and gain work experience. Women in their child-bearing years are able to combine employment and child-rearing, and thereby maintain their place in the workforce. Similarly, part-time employment permits some people who are ill or disabled to continue working. For men aged 55 and over, working part time may ease the transition to retirement. □

Notes

¹ For an explanation of the difference between full- and part-time jobs, as opposed to full- and part-time workers or employment, see H. Pold in this issue.

² Women also constitute the majority (67%) of "involuntary" part-time workers (see N. Noreau in this issue).

³ In 1993, students voluntarily working part time made up just 5% of the total workforce, but 12% of all persons in service occupations.

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Involuntary part-timers

Nathalie Noreau

Many people choose to work part time for personal, family or other reasons. Part-time employment can also benefit employers, by providing some flexibility during slack periods. Since 1975, the number of part-time workers has more than doubled from 988,000 to 2.1 million in 1993 (from 11% to 17% of total employment).

But while some people want to work part time, others are forced to do so because they are unable to find full-time jobs. The latter are "involuntary" part-time workers (see *Data source and definitions*). In 1993, involuntary part-timers numbered 760,000 and represented 35% of all part-time workers. These figures marked a substantial increase from 1975 when involuntary part-timers totalled 109,000 and accounted for 11% of all part-time employment. However, this was not a steady increase, as involuntary part-time employment tends to rise during recessions and decline in periods of recovery.

This article examines trends in involuntary part-time employment in relation to business cycles since 1980. It also discusses the characteristics of workers affected by this phenomenon during the two recessions that the period encompasses. The growth of involuntary part-time employment and its association with underemployment reflect

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Data source and definitions

The data in this article are annual averages derived from the monthly Labour Force Survey (LFS). Part-time workers usually spend less than 30 hours per week at all jobs. The LFS asks respondents who report 1 to 29 hours of work per week why they do not work 30 hours or more (full time). Based on their responses, two groups of part-timers can be identified. The first, voluntary part-timers, consists of people who have chosen part-time work because of personal or family responsibilities, school attendance, illness or disability, or simply because they do not want a full-time job. The second group, involuntary part-timers, would rather work full time but are unable to find full-time employment. These workers are "underemployed" in that they are obliged to take part-time positions because the hours offered by employers do not meet their requirements.

the widening discrepancy between the work hours offered by employers and the preferences of workers.

Effect of the business cycle

Involuntary part-time employment tends to follow the business cycle. When economic growth is weak, or in times of recession, the number of full-time jobs generally decreases, while involuntary part-time employment increases. Faced with the prospect of unemployment, workers often have no choice but to accept part-time positions, even when they would prefer full-time work.

For example, during the 1981-82 recession, the number of involuntary part-time workers grew by 111,000, while full-time employment declined (see *Replacing*

Replacing full-time?

The increase in involuntary part-time employment appears to be linked to the declining number of full-time positions. From 1980 to 1993, the proportion of full-timers dropped 4.3 percentage points, while the proportion of involuntary part-timers rose 3.9 percentage points. Does this mean that, to some extent, involuntary part-timers are replacing full-time workers? And if so, in which industrial sectors?

A comparison of lost full-time and new involuntary part-time employment between 1980 and 1993 suggests that in goods-producing industries the substitution effect was negligible – losses in full-time employment were accompanied by only slight increases in involuntary part-time workers. On the other hand, in several service sector industries – transportation and storage, communication, trade, and other service industries¹ – the declines in full-time employment were associated with substantially rising numbers of involuntary part-timers.

full-time?). And between 1982 and 1985, despite the economic recovery and a general improvement in the employment situation, an additional 131,000 people became involuntary part-timers. It was not until 1986 that the number of involuntary part-timers began to decline.²

However, the decline was short-lived. In 1990, with the beginning of the second recession, the number of involuntary part-time workers started to rise: a small increase of 13,000. This was followed by substantial jumps of 129,000 in 1991 and 107,000 in 1992, again accompanied by a decline in the number employed full time. In 1993, the growth of involuntary part-time employment eased to 92,000.

Thus, although the rate of increase of involuntary part-timers was steeper between 1981 and 1982 than between 1990 and 1991 (41% versus 30%), in actual numbers, the second recession surpassed the first (Table 1).

Unemployment and underemployment

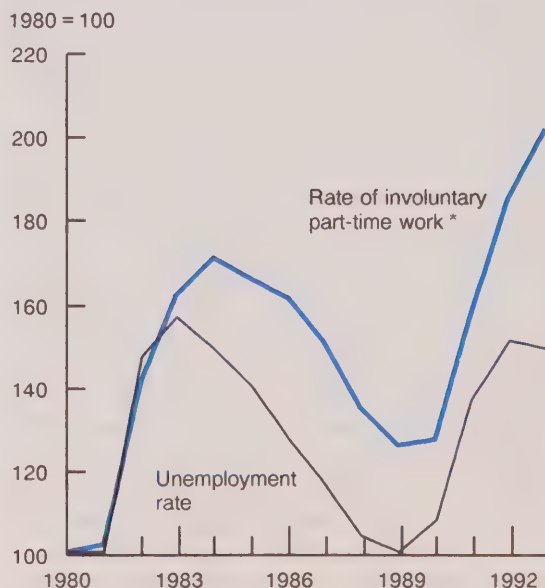
The unemployment rate is the most common measure of the state of the labour market. As well, unemployment and the rate of involun-

tary part-time work (involuntary part-timers as a proportion of all part-time workers) tend to move in tandem. Consequently, as unemployment falls with economic recovery, a corresponding downturn may also be expected in involuntary part-time employment.

And indeed, both indicators did decline during the expansion years between 1983 and 1989. However, while the unemployment rate fell back to its pre-recession level, the involuntary part-time employment rate remained well above what it had been in 1980 (Chart A). Therefore, despite the overall improvement in the employment situation, the involuntary part-time rate revealed persistent underemployment – a phenomenon that the unemployment rate conceals (Devereaux, 1992).³

Chart A

Despite the "boom" of the mid-1980s, involuntary part-time work did not fall as much as unemployment.



Source: Labour Force Survey

* Involuntary part-time work as a proportion of total part-time work.

Most involuntary part-timers are women

Throughout the 1980 to 1993 period, women constituted the majority of involuntary part-timers. By 1993, a total of 510,000 women were involuntary part-time workers, more than double the number of men (250,000). However, the proportion of men among involuntary part-timers increased in the recessions and declined during the recovery. In both 1984 and 1993, men made up about a third of involuntary part-time workers; by contrast, at the peak of the expansion period, in 1989, the proportion fell as low as 28%.

And while most involuntary part-timers are women, the rate of involuntary part-time work (involuntary part-timers as a proportion of all part-time workers in a specific group) is higher among men. This is because the few men who work part time are more likely than their female counterparts to do so involuntarily.

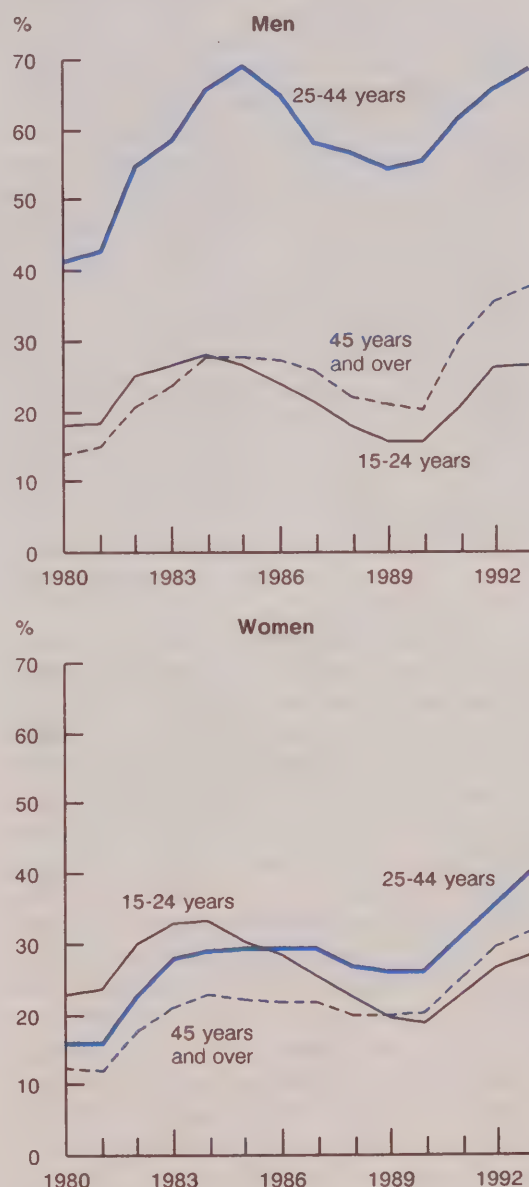
As well, the men's rate is more sensitive than women's to the business cycle, rising sharply in recessions and declining substantially as the economy recovers. In 1984 and 1985, the involuntary part-time rate for men was 33%, compared with 29% for women; the continuing expansion brought both rates down to 22% in 1989. But by 1993, the percentage of male part-timers who were involuntary was 38%, whereas the figure for women was 34%.

Rates vary by age

By far, the highest rate of involuntary part-time employment occurs among men aged 25 to 44 (Chart B). Their rate peaked at 69% in 1985 and then declined steeply to 55% in 1989. Nonetheless, the 1989 figure was well above the pre-recession level. Moreover, by 1993, the rate had regained its 1985 peak. This high rate and the sharp increases and declines are largely a reflection of the small number of 25 to 44 year-old men who work part time. Thus, relatively few male involuntary part-timers can yield a high rate, and minor changes in their numbers can produce major fluctuations.

Chart B

For both men and women, the rate of involuntary part-time work* is highest among those aged 25 to 44.



Source: Labour Force Survey

* Involuntary part-time work as a proportion of total part-time work

Table 1
Work arrangements and involuntary part-time employment rate

Year	Employment				
	Total	Full-time	Part-time		
			Total	Involuntary	Involuntary/ total
	'000			'000	%
1980	10,708	9,316	1,392	245	18
1981	11,001	9,515	1,486	268	18
1982	10,618	9,090	1,528	379	25
1983	10,675	9,036	1,639	467	28
1984	10,932	9,263	1,668	502	30
1985	11,221	9,484	1,737	509	29
1986	11,531	9,742	1,789	506	28
1987	11,861	10,057	1,804	479	27
1988	12,245	10,363	1,882	446	24
1989	12,486	10,597	1,888	420	22
1990	12,572	10,640	1,932	432	22
1991	12,340	10,317	2,023	561	28
1992	12,240	10,182	2,058	669	32
1993	12,383	10,241	2,143	760	35

Source: Labour Force Survey

Younger and older men who work part time are much less likely to do so involuntarily than are 25 to 44 year-olds. And since 1980, trends in the rates of involuntary part-time work have differed for men aged 15 to 24, compared with those 45 and older. Among the youngest group, the 1993 rate was lower than that of the first recession. By contrast, among the older workers, the 1993 rate substantially surpassed the previous peak (38% versus 27%). As a result, in 1993, male part-time workers aged 45 and over were more likely than those aged 15 to 24 to be involuntary part-timers. The low rate among young men may reflect the fact that they are staying in school longer because of scarce employment opportunities in the past few years (Akyeampong, 1992).

Among women aged 25 and over who worked part time, the 1993 involuntary rate was much higher than the previous peak. The rate among those aged 25 to 44 was 40% in 1993, compared with 30% for the earlier

recession. At age 45 and over, the corresponding figures were 32% and 22%.

While 25 to 44 year-old women were much less likely than men in this age range to be involuntary part-timers, this was not the case at older and younger ages. At age 45 and over, women's rate of involuntary part-time employment was only slightly lower than that of men. And at ages 15 to 24, women working part time were more likely than men to do so involuntarily. However, the trends that prevailed for male involuntary part-timers in this age range also applied to women: the 1993 level was below that of the previous recession, probably as a result of rising school enrolment.

Industry

Variations in rates of involuntary part-time work by industry are, to some extent, attributable to the characteristics of workers and the nature of jobs in different industries.⁴ Employment in the goods-producing sector is

three-quarters male and mostly full-time. On the other hand, the service sector, which is more than half female, has a large part-time component.

In 1980, men in the goods-producing and service sectors had similar rates of involuntary part-time employment. By 1993, the rates had risen in both sectors, but more in goods (Table 2). Consequently, men who were employed part time in goods-producing industries were more likely than those in the service sector to be involuntary part-timers.

Rates of involuntary part-time employment also rose among female workers in both sectors. However, throughout the period, the rate in services remained above that in goods.⁵

Rates are higher in the east

Involuntary part-time employment rates vary substantially across the country, with

Table 2
Involuntary part-time employment rate*
by industry and sex

	1980		1993	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
	%			
Goods-producing	20	10	47	25
Agriculture	--	--	21	15
Other primary	--	--	--	--
Manufacturing	22	17	48	39
Construction	38	9	66	20
Service-producing	19	18	36	35
Transportation, communication and other utilities	38	19	64	45
Trade	15	17	29	34
Finance, insurance and real estate	--	13	29	30
Services	20	18	38	36
Business, education, health and social services	20	18	43	37
Accommodation, food and other services	20	19	36	35
Public administration	--	19	34	35

Source: Labour Force Survey

* Involuntary part-time work as a proportion of total part-time work

levels generally higher in the Atlantic region and Quebec. Involuntary part-time employment in all provinces was affected by the two recessions, though not at the same time nor to the same degree.

In 1993, the rate in the Atlantic provinces was 51%, the highest in the country. In fact, with only two exceptions, this region had the highest rate every year since 1980. The rate decreased only marginally during the 1983-89 recovery and, thus, began the second recession at a much higher level than in 1981.

In Quebec, too, the involuntary part-time employment rate stayed well above the national average throughout the period. And because the high rates of the first recession persisted afterwards, the province entered the second recession with an already high rate (33% in 1990). However, the increase from 1990 to 1991 was more moderate (4 percentage points) than during the 1981 to 1982 period (8 percentage points). By 1993, Quebec's rate was 42%.

Ontario's rate of involuntary part-time work was the only one to drop below pre-recession levels during the recovery. However, although Ontario entered the second recession with a very low rate (15% in 1990), it increased markedly to 32% in 1993.

In the early 1980s, the Prairie provinces had the lowest rates of involuntary part-time employment. However, the first recession brought substantial increases in all three provinces. Alberta was the only one of the three in which the rate dropped substantially during the recovery. Declines in Manitoba were minimal, while in Saskatchewan the rate climbed almost steadily. The second recession meant further increases in each province, so that the 1993 rates were 32% in Alberta, 34% in Manitoba, and 38% in Saskatchewan, far surpassing 1980 rates.

British Columbia's involuntary part-time employment rate rose sharply during the first recession from 16% in 1981 to 39% in 1984. A gradual decline over the rest of the

decade saw the rate bottom out at 21% in 1990. By 1993, it had risen to only 30%, the lowest in the country.

Summary

Like unemployment, involuntary part-time employment is tied to the business cycle. However, although unemployment dropped after the recession of the early 1980s, the involuntary part-time employment rate never returned to its pre-recession level, thus indicating a degree of persistent underemployment.

While women constitute the majority of involuntary part-time workers, the rate is actually higher for men, particularly at ages 25 to 44. As well, by 1993, men in goods-producing industries had a much higher rate than did those in the service sector; in 1980 the rates had been virtually identical. Rates rose among women in both sectors, but those in services continued to have the highest rate.

Over the 1980 to 1993 period, rates of involuntary part-time employment varied substantially from region to region. □

Notes

¹ Includes business services, educational services, health and social services, accommodation and food services, and other services.

² This downturn in the number of involuntary part-timers was insignificant, compared with the increase between 1975 and 1985. Akyeampong (1986) notes that involuntary part-time employment rose continuously over the period from 109,000 to 509,000 (the rate increased from 11% to 29%).

³ Involuntary part-time workers are not factored into the official unemployment rate. They are, however, included in a supplementary measure of unemployment – the unemployment rate for the full-time labour force. In the calculation of this rate, involuntary part-time workers are treated as partially unemployed.

⁴ Industry designations are somewhat misleading. The industry to which workers are assigned is the one in which they are currently employed. Consequently, when workers in, for instance, manufacturing lose their job and can find only part-time employment in services, they are shown working in services. Therefore, they are counted among involuntary part-time workers in services, not manufacturing.

⁵ To some extent, a comparison of patterns of involuntary part-time employment in the goods-producing and service sectors in 1980 and 1993 is misleading, as these years mark different points in the business cycle. However, when two similar years are used for the comparison – 1980 and 1989, both at the end of periods of expansion – the trends in involuntary part-time employment by industry still hold.

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Ever more moonlighters

Gary L. Cohen

More women in the workforce, more service jobs, more part-time workers. Canada's labour market has been remarkably transformed since the 1970s. And multiple jobholding, or moonlighting, has been part of that transformation.

In 1977, moonlighters were a rare breed, just 1 out of every 40 workers. In the ensuing years, the rate¹ or incidence of multiple jobholding more than doubled, so that by 1993, fully 1 in 20 workers had a second job.

This article uses data from a variety of sources to describe moonlighters (see *Data sources*). It also provides new information about why people moonlight and about the work patterns of their second jobs.

More women

In the mid-1970s, moonlighting was largely a male domain: just over one-quarter of the 233,000 moonlighters in 1977 were women. By 1993, however, this proportion had risen substantially: almost one-half of the 628,000 moonlighters were women (Table 1). During this period, the number of female moonlighters grew by 372%, while the number of males rose by 93%.

In part, the rising number of female moonlighters reflects women's increasing participation in the workforce. But more

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Data sources

Most of the data in this article come from the Labour Force Survey (LFS), a monthly survey of some 58,000 households involving about 106,000 respondents. According to the LFS, any person (including the self-employed) who holds two or more jobs (or owns and operates two or more businesses) at the same time is a multiple jobholder. (A very small number of workers have more than two jobs.) The LFS defines the main job of a multiple jobholder on the basis of the job that **currently** has the greater number of usual weekly hours worked (not on the basis of annual income or work patterns). Thus, the designation of the main job for some people (for example, farmers) could shift depending on the time of year.

The income data come from the Survey of Consumer Finances (SCF), an annual supplement to the April LFS. The SCF asks respondents for information about their incomes during the previous calendar year. SCF data about multiple jobholder status refer to the survey month (April) only.

The Survey of Work Arrangements (SWA), a supplement to the November 1991 LFS, provides the data about work patterns, the industrial distribution of second jobs, and the reasons for moonlighting. The SWA collected data on work schedules, non-standard work arrangements, and union membership. For further information, see Siroonian, 1993 or the Autumn 1993 issue of *Perspectives*. SWA questions on moonlighting were asked only of multiple jobholders who were paid workers in their main job.

importantly, the incidence of multiple jobholding has climbed much more sharply for women (from 1.8% in 1977 to 5.3% in 1993) than for men (2.8% to 4.9%). Indeed, since 1990, multiple jobholding has been more prevalent among employed women than among their male counterparts (Chart A).

Table 1
Multiple jobholders by age and sex, 1993

	Total employed	Multiple jobholders	Incidence of multiple jobholding
	'000		%
Both sexes*	12,383	628	5.1
15-24 years	1,943	121	6.2
25-44 years	6,833	351	5.1
45-64 years	3,419	152	4.4
Men*	6,753	329	4.9
15-24 years	993	54	5.4
25-44 years	3,676	188	5.1
45-64 years	1,957	84	4.3
Women*	5,630	299	5.3
15-24 years	949	67	7.1
25-44 years	3,157	163	5.2
45-64 years	1,462	68	4.6

Source: Labour Force Survey

* Includes persons aged 65 and over.

Age and education make a difference

Young workers (15 to 24 years), both men and women, had the highest rates of moonlighting in 1993. This is not surprising as young workers who have encountered difficulties finding full-time jobs may **have to** take multiple part-time jobs, while students may **prefer** the flexibility of several part-time jobs. Women outnumbered men among young moonlighters, but men formed the majority in all other age groups.

Multiple jobholding is more prevalent among highly educated workers. In 1993, the rate among workers with an advanced education (either a postsecondary certificate or diploma, or a university degree) was 5.7%, compared with 4.5% for other workers. Indeed, 51% of moonlighters in 1993 had an advanced education, compared with 45% of single jobholders. As well, moonlighting was more widespread among well-educated women than among their male counterparts. This pattern can be attributed, at least in part, to the high rates of moonlighting in health and social services, and in education

services, industries in which many well-educated women are employed.

More service jobs

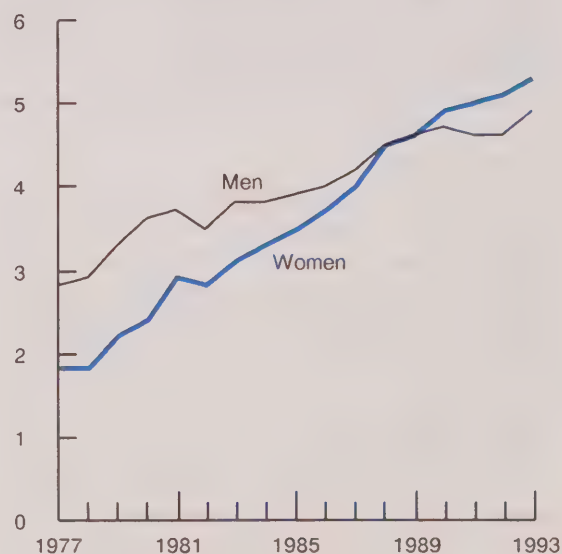
In 1977, the rate of moonlighting was the same for workers in both goods-producing and service-producing industries: 2.4% (Table 2).² That year, the main jobs for some two-thirds of moonlighters were in the service sector.

By 1993, the proportion of moonlighters whose main job was in the service industries had climbed to 78%. And the incidence of multiple jobholding was 5.3% for workers in the service sector, compared with 4.4% in the goods sector. Agriculture recorded the highest industry rate (8.3%), followed by education services (7.2%) and health and social services (6.5%).

Chart A

Since 1990, moonlighting has been more prevalent for women.

Incidence of multiple jobholding (%)



Source: Labour Force Survey



PERSPECTIVES

ON LABOUR AND INCOME

Supplement

Catalogue 75-001E

Autumn 1994

The labour market: Mid-year review

H I G H L I G H T S

- After more than a year of economic growth, the pace of job creation finally increased enough to nudge the unemployment rate below 11% in the second quarter of 1994.
- Employment jumped 139,000 between December 1993 and June 1994, the strongest and most consistent six-month performance since the last quarter of 1992 and first quarter of 1993.
- While the proportion of employed persons usually working less than 30 hours a week remained high (17%), all of the employment growth from the end of 1993 to mid-1994 was full-time.
- By mid-1994, overall employment among adult men was 70,000 above pre-recession levels, but employment growth still fell behind population increases for that group.
- During the first half of 1994, employment among adult women grew by 59,000, continuing the upward trend that began in the spring of 1992. Until 1994, employment growth had largely been part-time, but, as with adult men, the gain in the first half of 1994 was full-time.
- While the recovery still eludes youths, the summer has begun on a promising note. After falling sharply for four years in a row, the May-June employment rate (employment/population ratio) for returning students has stabilized at 45%, with gains among those aged 20 to 24 outnumbering the employment losses among younger students.
- Over the first half of 1994, the goods sector was a major contributor to employment growth. While this sector represents only about a quarter of all employment, it accounted for more than a third of the overall employment gain since December 1993. Construction was primarily responsible for the growth, up a very strong 80,000 in the first six months of 1994, despite a setback of 21,000 in June.

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The labour market: Mid-year review

Deborah Sunter

Despite a difficult January during which record cold, a dock strike and major shutdowns in the auto sector all hampered production, shipments, and employment, a number of indicators over the first four months of 1994 pointed to a strengthening economic recovery. In the first quarter, real gross domestic product rose at an impressive annualized rate of 4.2%. The growth in industrial output slowed in January and February, but rebounded strongly in March and continued at a slower pace in April. The composite index¹ maintained its upward trend, reflecting strength in a number of areas: for example, manufacturing shipments and orders were robust, and retail sales continued to improve, with increases matching those in the mid-1980s. This performance was consistent with the rise in consumer confidence in the last quarter of 1993 and the beginning of 1994, and translated into a healthy annual increase of 2.8% in personal spending in the first quarter of 1994 (Chart A).

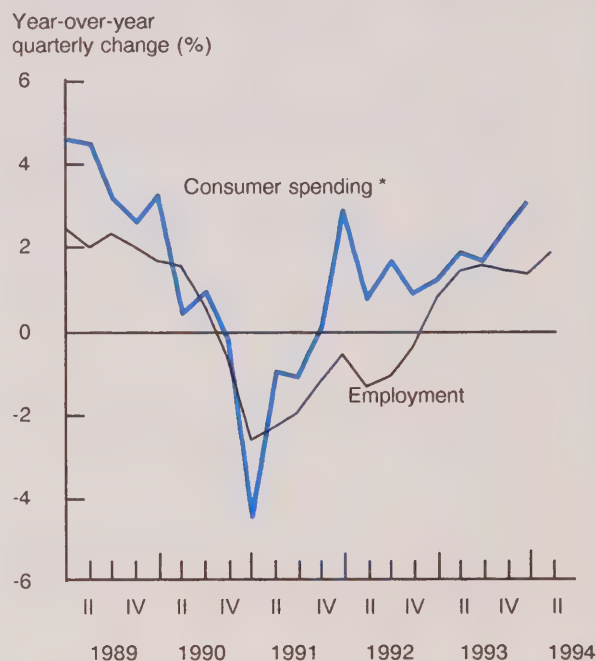
The labour market brightens

After more than a year of economic growth, the pace of job creation finally increased enough to nudge the unemployment rate below 11% in the second quarter of 1994. Employment jumped 139,000 between

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Chart A

Growth in consumer spending has pulled employment up in 1994.



Sources: National Accounts and Environment Division, and Labour Force Survey

* Personal expenditure on consumer goods and services (at 1986 prices)

December 1993 and June 1994, the strongest and most consistent six-month performance since the last quarter of 1992 and the first quarter of 1993. Monthly gains averaged 23,000, considerably more than the average of 13,000 in 1993.

This article is based on information available as of July 8th, 1994. Unless otherwise stated, all monthly data have been seasonally adjusted to provide a better picture of underlying trends. Seasonal movements are those caused by regular annual events such as climate, holidays, vacation periods, and cycles related to crops and production. Seasonally adjusted series still contain irregular and longer-term cyclical fluctuations.

Employment

Employment made up considerable ground after a bad start early in the year. Rebounding from a decline of 39,000 in January, growth was strong over February and March (114,000), showing the best back-to-back gains since 1989. After virtually no change in April, employment jumped another 56,000 in May, and edged up marginally in June (7,000).

More full-time ...

Part-time employment² increases have dominated the job scene over the last three years and, coupled with the sluggish full-time employment growth in 1993, appeared to signal a worrisome change in the nature and quality of work. The recovering economy seemed capable of creating little more than part-time and lower-wage jobs. However, the picture brightened in the first six months of 1994. All of the employment growth from the end of 1993 to mid-1994 was full-time. In fact, part-time employment dropped 46,000 (-2.1%) over the same period, although the proportion of part-time workers remained high at 17% (Chart B).

This improvement in full-time work was concentrated among adults (25 years and over). While full-time employment has been edging up since the summer of 1992 for both adult men and women, it continues to elude a growing proportion of youths (15 to 24 years). By mid-1994, full-time employment among

young people remained far below pre-recession levels (-375,000).

... and longer hours

Of late, considerable attention has been paid to hours of work, because increases in average weekly hours and overtime are thought to signal an imminent surge in hiring. Typically, in the early stages of a recovery, until business confidence builds, employers may be reluctant to incur the costs of additional workers. They may try to meet increased demand by raising the work hours of their existing employees. But, at some point, work weeks become so stretched that hiring more staff is necessary.

Although volatile, weekly hours actually worked rose faster than employment between September 1992 and July 1993, due mostly to increases in work hours in the goods-producing industries. Despite a slowdown in the last few months, average weekly hours in this sector were still higher in the first half of 1994 than they were over the same period in the previous year, but remained well below their peak levels in the late 1980s. This reflects a combination of factors: less overtime than during the high-demand years of the 1980s, continued use of reduced work weeks, and the trend to more part-time employment in industries that historically have been dominated almost exclusively by full-time work. The average weekly hours of service workers remain low, partly due to the growing incidence of part-time work in this sector (Chart C).

Extra hours worked, paid or unpaid, may be an even better indicator of improvement in labour market conditions and pent-up labour demand. Indeed, for paid workers, average extra hours per week had been rising in advance of employment gains among blue-collar workers. Their extra hours rose strongly throughout 1993, but levelled off in the first half of 1994 (Chart D).

Chart B

The recovery has finally boosted full-time employment.

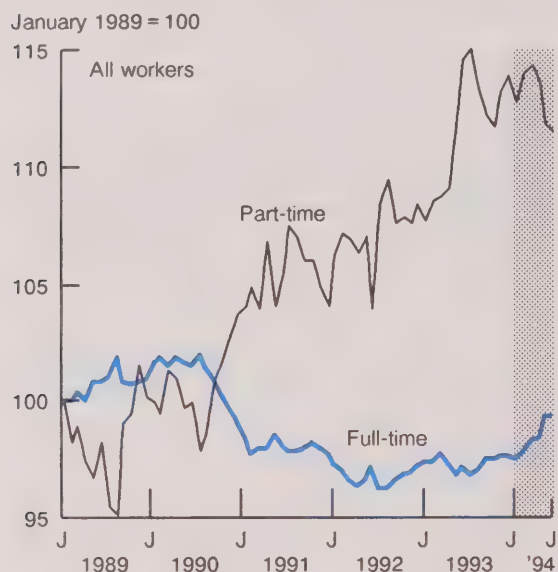


Chart D

The strong growth in blue-collar overtime has levelled off in 1994.

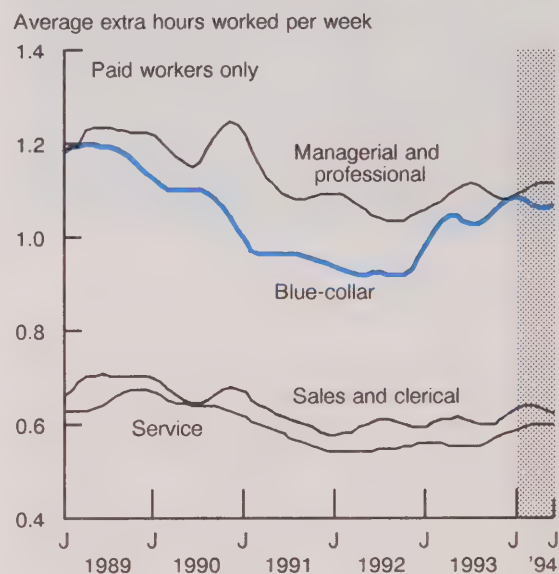


Chart C

Hours worked in the goods sector have almost regained their pre-recession level.

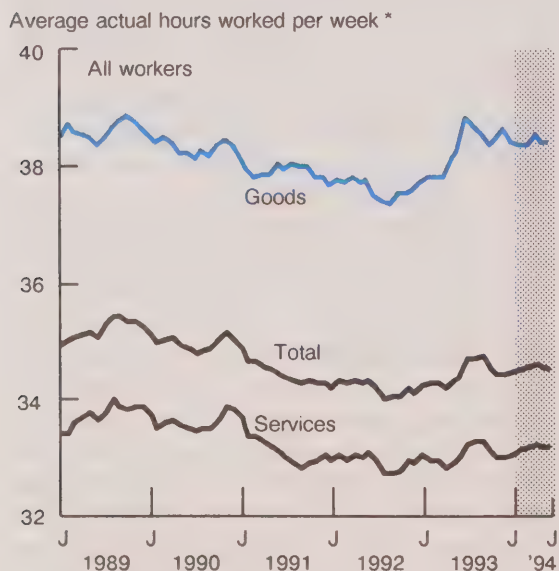


Chart E

Self-employment among adult workers resumed its upward trend in 1994.



Source: Labour Force Survey
* Three-month moving averages

Extra hours are those worked in addition to usual weekly hours. Just as extra hours have been on the increase, so too have the usual work hours of a growing number of adult paid workers. The proportion of persons with work weeks of 41 hours or more rose from an average 15% in the first half of 1990 to 16% during the same period of 1994 (unadjusted data). This increase, coupled with the growth in part-time jobs, has resulted in a significant decline in the proportion of workers with standard hours (35 to 40 a week). This polarization began in the early eighties, apparently precipitated by the 1981-82 recession. Both long and short work weeks have become even more common over the last few years (see Sunter and Morissette, in this issue).

Many of those working short work weeks would prefer full-time employment (see Noreau, in this issue). But, as growth in part-time has stabilized relative to full-time, so too has the incidence of "involuntary part-time." Although still very high at 35.6% of all part-time in June 1994, the rate is slightly down from June 1993.

Self-employment

The incidence of self-employment has been rising for years, and this growth accelerated during the 1990-92 recession. Growth in self-employment continues to be strong during the recovery. In fact, while 17% of adult workers were self-employed in June 1994, they accounted for 19% of the overall employment increase from December 1993 to June 1994 (Chart E).

The industrial picture – better times in the goods sector

Over the first half of 1994, the goods sector was a major contributor to employment growth. While this sector represents only about a quarter of all employment, it accounted for more than a third of the overall employment gain since December 1993. Construction was primarily responsible for the growth, up a very strong 80,000 in the

first six months of 1994, despite a setback of 21,000 in June. The turnaround in this industry began in February 1994, consistent with the upward trend in building permits and improvement in housing starts. By May, some of the growth may have been attributable to government-sponsored infrastructure projects. While encouraging, construction has a long way to go before reaching pre-recession employment levels (Chart F).

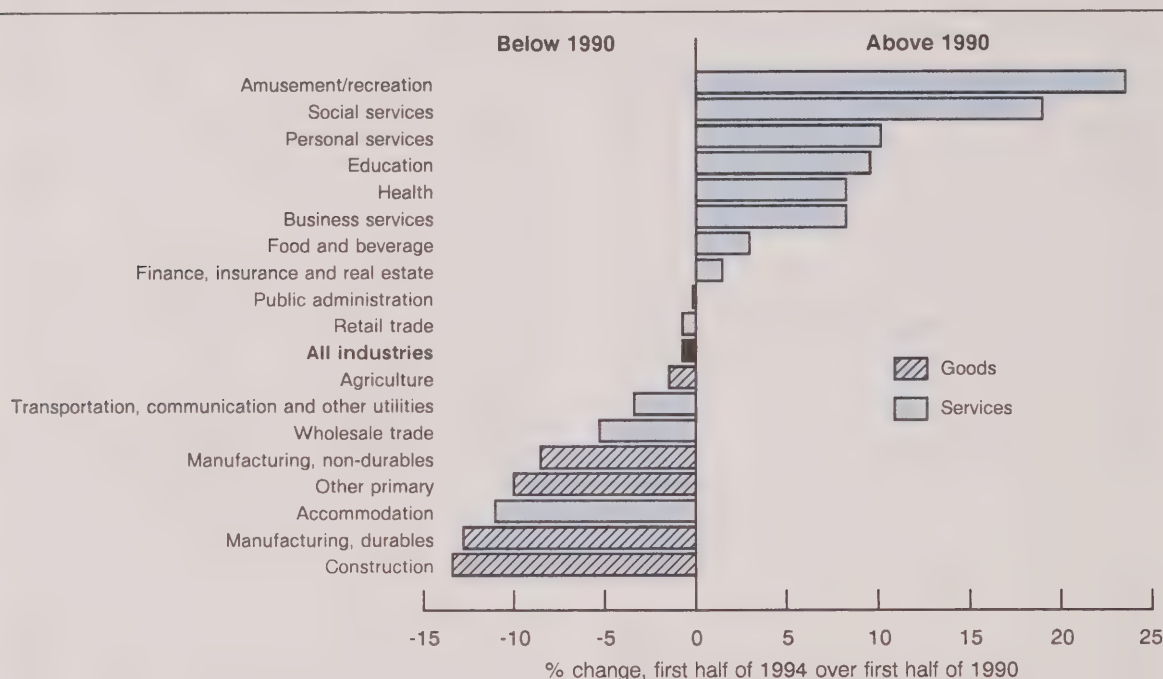
In manufacturing, the year began with an employment loss of 48,000 from the previous month. But in February and March the situation began to look promising, with manufacturing employment up 74,000 over the two months, boosted by a resumption of activity in the auto sector. However, the trend was not sustained. By June, the employment level was only marginally higher than in December 1993. Still, manufacturing jobs were more plentiful than they had been during the trough that prevailed through 1992 and most of 1993, with all of the improvement coming from durables. A recent surge in shipments and unfilled orders may further revive employment in this industry. On the other hand, major productivity gains may preclude the need for additional workers.

The resource-based industries have also changed little over the first half of 1994, as recent growth in forestry was offset by losses in mining and little change in fishing. Agricultural employment weakened further, declining by 18,000 between December 1993 and June 1994.

Employment in the service sector stalled in 1991, but has been on a slow, relatively steady, climb since then. Over the first half of 1994, only public administration, and transportation, communication and other utilities lost ground. Most of the employment declines in public administration occurred in the second quarter of 1994. By mid-year, employment in this industry was down 4.1% (-35,000) from the level at the end of 1993.

Chart F

Despite recent growth, none of the major goods-producing industries have yet regained their 1990 employment levels.



Source: Labour Force Survey

Employment in transportation, communication and other utilities peaked in 1989, and weakened over the next two years. Growth in the second half of 1993 was not sustained, and employment was down 20,000 in June 1994 from its December level. In contrast, finance, insurance and real estate, which had begun to weaken in the latter part of 1993, grew in the first half of 1994, regaining its June 1993 level. Improvement in the real estate industry began to show by the second quarter of 1994.

Employment in trade fluctuated over the first half of the year, but the overall trend was up, with the June level 32,000 (1.5%) above that of December 1993. Employment in trade had stopped its slide in the spring of 1993, but subsequent growth stalled by year-end. Much of the recent improvement can be attributed to more jobs in retail outlets,

reflecting higher consumer demand and strong sales since November of last year. However, employment in wholesale also grew, as record imports and exports and healthy manufacturing shipments helped to increase the number of workers in this industry.

Community, business and personal services encompass a large and diverse stock of industrial activity, from education and health care, to recreation and restaurants. They account for more than a third of all employment and much of the upward trend in the service sector over the last few years. Through the recession, employment growth was fuelled by expansion in community services, but over the last few months, growth slowed, primarily due to losses in health services. In fact, health employment has been edging down since the

fall of 1993, with losses in the first half of 1994 alone totalling 26,000. Since January 1994, employment increases in the education sector slowed, following strong growth in the second half of 1993. Not surprisingly, employment has continued to expand in industries involved with social welfare. In social services, employment was 4% higher in June 1994 than in December 1993, and about 15% above the average level in 1990.

The creation of jobs related to services to business management has been impressive in recent months. Employment in this industry began to climb in mid-1993, with growth accelerating sharply from February 1994 on (12%). The first half of 1994 saw significant increases in employment in the amusement and recreation industries, small gains in accommodation, little change in food and beverage, and declines in personal and other service industries.

Where are we now?

Adult men ... improved prospects

Adult men were the major beneficiaries of much of the goods-related growth in the first half of the year. This improvement added momentum to the sluggish recovery in their overall employment levels that began in May 1992. Rebounding from losses in January 1994, employment among men increased 78,000 between December 1993 and June 1994. All of the gain was full-time employment, continuing the upward trend and finally offsetting the large declines of 1990 and 1991. By mid-1994, overall employment among adult men was 70,000 above pre-recession levels, but employment growth still fell behind population increases for that group. In June 1994, the employment rate (employment/population ratio) of adult men stood at 67.8%, 4.7 percentage points below their March 1990 rate (Chart G).

Adult women ... continuing growth

During the first half of 1994, employment among adult women grew by 59,000,

Chart G

Employment growth continues to lag behind population growth.

March 1990 = 100 *



Source: Labour Force Survey

* GDP cyclical peak

continuing the upward trend that began the spring of 1992. In fact, except for a few months during 1990 and 1991, the level never really fell. Until 1994, employment growth had largely been part-time, but, as with adult men, the gain in the first half of 1994 was full-time. The almost continuous employment growth since the start of the recession leaves women's employment rate in June only slightly down from its March 1990 level (-1.4 points) (Chart G).

Youths ... signs of improvement?

While the recovery still eludes youths, the summer has begun on a promising note. The continued popularity of education has helped to keep a lid on youth unemployment during the school year (see Sunter, 1994), but growth in enrolment means that each summer more students hit the labour market in search of summer jobs. The last four

summers have been marked by a steady deterioration in students' employment prospects. The average May-June employment rate for returning students was 44.1% in 1993, down 10 points from 1989. This summer, conditions appear to have stabilized – the May-June average employment rate was 44.6%, with gains among those aged 20 to 24 outnumbering the losses among younger students (unadjusted data).

The regional picture

While the national labour market situation has improved markedly since January, conditions vary by province (Chart H).

Mixed performance in the Atlantic region

Employment in Newfoundland was little changed over the first half of the year, and is still more than 8% below its pre-recession

level. By June 1994, Prince Edward Island had regained pre-recession employment levels, helped by a small growth in the second quarter of 1994. Nova Scotia had considerable employment growth in the first five months of the year, but employment is still 2.9% below its pre-recession level. In contrast, the employment situation in New Brunswick, which had fared quite well through the recession, faltered in late 1993, although some of this loss was reversed in the second quarter of 1994.

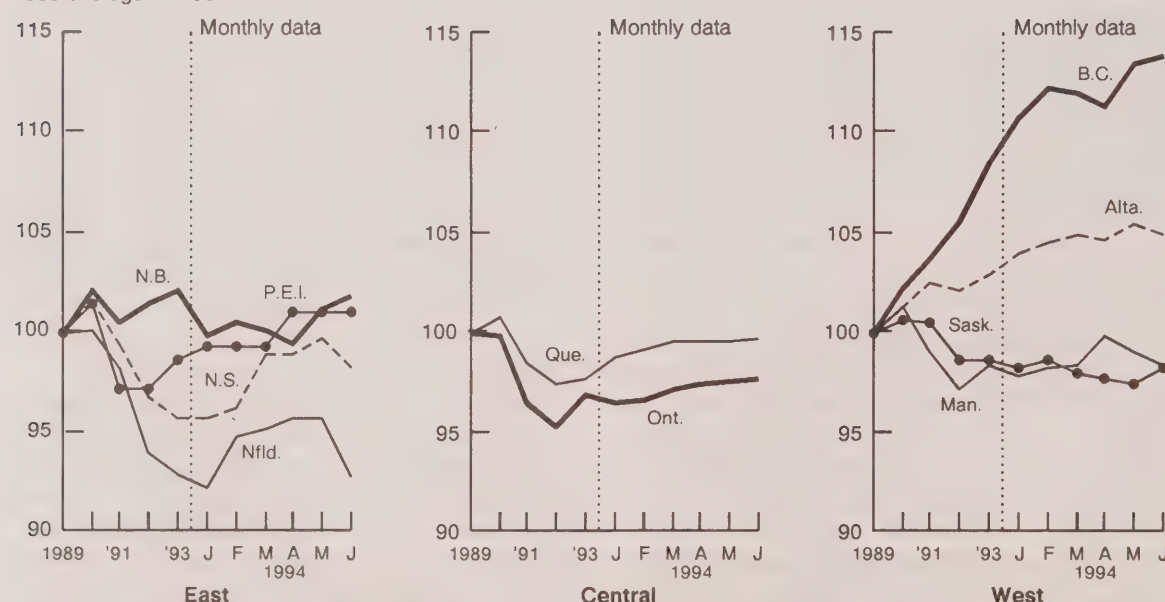
Central Canada: slow improvement

Employment in Quebec has been increasing slowly since the summer of 1993. Increases in personal and health services made up for losses in other industries. Growth became more widespread in 1994, with trade, construction and manufacturing contributing to the overall gain of 52,000 since December 1993. By June, employment had

Chart H

The pace of employment growth in central Canada is slowly picking up.

1989 average = 100



Source: Labour Force Survey

bettered 1991 levels, and was only 1.4% below the pre-recession peak.

The Ontario labour market appeared to have shaken off the recession in late 1992, but employment growth was not sustained over 1993. The first half of 1994 looked brighter. Despite a large loss of 41,000 in January (26,000 in manufacturing), consistent gains totalling 62,000 over the next five months brought the net growth by June to 21,000. Still, after being the hardest hit by the recession, Ontario's employment must rise by another 163,000 just to return to pre-recession levels.

The West ... little change on the prairies, more jobs in B.C. and Alberta

Employment in Manitoba had been improving in 1993. Following a sharp decline in January 1994, the upward trend resumed, but June was still 8,000 (-1.6%) below the level of December 1993. In Saskatchewan, employment was little changed over the first half of 1994, following an essentially flat 1993. Employment in Alberta has been increasing since the spring of 1993, and gains have continued over the first half of 1994 (7,000). Employment in this province is now almost 4% (46,000) above pre-recession levels. In British Columbia, employment has been on a strong upward trend since mid-1992. Despite small losses in March and April, growth has continued through the first half of 1994, up 45,000 (2.8%) since December 1993. Employment in British Columbia is now well above its March 1990 level (187,000 or 12.9%).

Unemployment dips below 11%

More help wanted

The working-age population has been growing at an average of 26,000 each month and many of these people are attracted to the labour market. In addition, others, who have stopped searching for work, tend to return to the labour market as conditions improve. Growth in employment must match growth

in the labour force, just to keep the unemployment rate at its current level. In 1994, more employers were advertising for new staff (the Help-wanted Index rose eight points in the first six months) and employment growth was finally strong enough to absorb the increases in labour market activity. The unemployment rate fluctuated widely during the first few months, responding to both employment growth and changes in labour force participation. By June it stood at 10.3%.

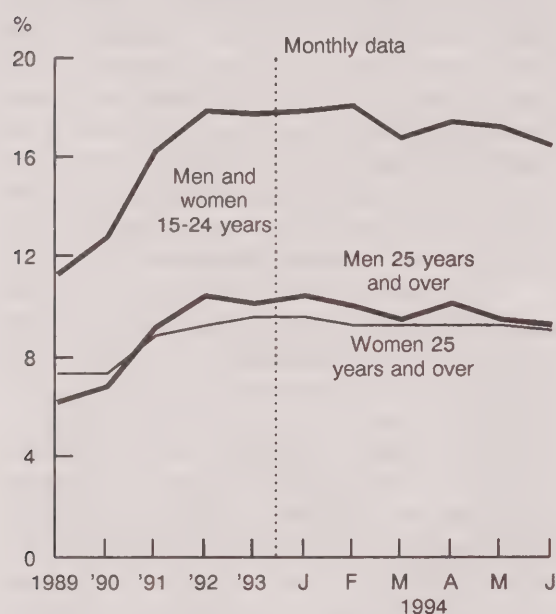
Over the first half of 1994, the unemployment rate among adult men was volatile, but by June, at 9.2%, it was well below the 1993 average of 10.1%. The rate for youths was also erratic, due both to swings in labour force participation and changes in employment levels. It reached 18.1% in February, but fell back to 16.4% in June as school attendance remained high and fewer youths were searching for work. The unemployment rate among adult women fell to 9.0%, the lowest rate since April 1992 and 0.8 percentage points below the rate for December 1993 (Chart I).

UI beneficiaries decline as long-term unemployment continues to grow (unadjusted data)

In contrast to the slow and halting decline in the unemployment rate, the number of unemployment insurance beneficiaries dropped by 168,000 (-13%) between the first quarters of 1993 and 1994. In fact, the number of UI beneficiaries started falling in spring 1992, whereas the unemployment rate remained above 11% until early 1994. One reason for this apparent contradiction is long-term unemployment. Those searching for work for more than a year would have exhausted their UI claims, thus dropping out of the UI numbers while continuing to be counted in the Labour Force Survey's unemployment rate. On average, over 14% (227,000) of all unemployed persons had been searching for work for more than a year during the first half of 1994, compared with

Chart I

Unemployment rates have begun to ease.



Source: Labour Force Survey

13% (206,000) a year earlier and only 6% (61,000) in the first half of 1990.

Conclusion

Over the last two years, employment has lagged far behind other indicators of eco-

nomic recovery. Slow employment growth has been a major drag on complete recovery, as consumer confidence and spending remained depressed. However, the pace of employment growth picked up during the first half of 1994, and, despite a dismal January, climbed 139,000 (1.1%) above the December 1993 level.

Widespread and sustained expansion in the output of the goods-producing sector is finally translating into job growth, and, while higher interest rates may dampen activity, infrastructure projects and record-level exports augur well for further employment growth in both construction and manufacturing.

The new strength in full-time employment is most encouraging, as larger pay-cheques coupled with lower unemployment rates tend to lead to greater consumer confidence and hence more spending.

Adults have benefited most from the recent improvement in the labour market. The best that can be said for youths is that their employment has stabilized, albeit at a lower level. Early indications are that the long-awaited improvement in summer employment has begun for 20 to 24 year-olds, while conditions have further deteriorated for younger returning students.

Despite the recent improvement, job creation must continue to exceed population growth if employment rates are to return to the levels of the late 1980s. □

Notes

¹ The composite index comprises ten components: house spending index, employment in business and personal services, the TSE 300 stock price index, money supply, U.S. composite leading index, manufacturing average work week, new orders durable goods,

shipment to inventory ratio, furniture and appliance sales, sales of retail durable goods.

² Part-time employment consists of persons who usually work less than 30 hours per week at all jobs.

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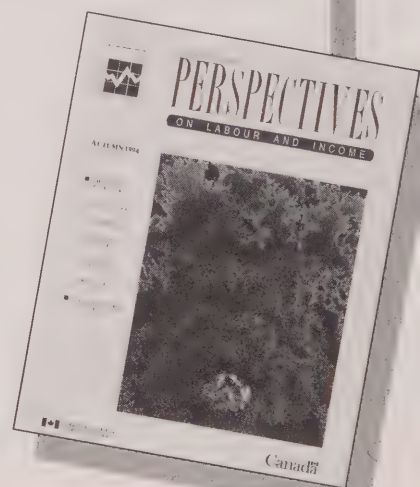
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Between 1977 and 1993, the number of moonlighters whose main job was in service industries more than tripled, while in goods industries it increased by 77%. (In comparison, total service employment in Canada rose more than 40% during this 16-year interval, while total employment in the goods sector dropped 2%.) The rise in the number of moonlighters with a main job in health and social services was particularly large (over 500%).

Farmers and teachers

The occupational distribution of moonlighters mirrors the industry pattern. In 1993, the highest incidence occurred among workers whose main job was farming (8.1%), followed by workers in artistic, literary and recreational occupations, and teachers (both 7.7%).

More part-time work

The growth of part-time work has been one of the major changes in the Canadian labour market in recent years (Logan, in this issue). Between 1977 and 1993, the number of part-time workers jumped 87% (and the number of part-time jobs more than doubled), while full-time employment rose only 20% (Pold, in this issue).

Moonlighting is much more prevalent among workers whose main job is part time³ (that is, usually less than 30 hours per week) than among those whose main job is full time. In 1993, the incidence of moonlighting was 8.4% among part-timers, but only 4.3% among full-timers. In fact, nearly one-third of moonlighters in 1993 (200,000) had a part-time main job, and fully one-half of these moonlighters remained part-time workers

Table 2
Multiple jobholders by industry*

	1977		1993	
	Multiple jobholders	Incidence of multiple jobholding	Multiple jobholders	Incidence of multiple jobholding
	'000	%	'000	%
All industries	233	2.4	628	5.1
Agriculture	24	5.3	37	8.3
Other primary**	5	1.9	12	4.6
Manufacturing	36	1.9	64	3.5
Construction	12	1.9	25	3.8
Transportation and storage	12	2.4	20	4.1
Communication and other utilities	7	2.1	19	4.4
Wholesale trade	11	2.5	28	5.1
Retail trade	24	2.0	81	5.1
Finance and insurance	5	1.5	16	3.2
Real estate operators and insurance agents	4	2.5	14	5.4
Business services	7	2.2	29	4.2
Government services	21	3.0	39	4.6
Education services	26	3.7	64	7.2
Health and social services	14	1.9	83	6.5
Accommodation, food and beverage services	10	2.2	40	5.2
Other services†	15	2.8	57	6.1

Source: Labour Force Survey

* Industry refers to the main job of the multiple jobholder.

** Fishing, forestry and mining.

†. Mainly amusement and recreation services, plus personal and household services.

despite holding more than one job. In comparison, only one-fifth of moonlighters (48,000) in 1977 had a part-time main job.

Yet many workers are less than fully satisfied with part-time jobs. In 1993, workers (both men and women) with a part-time main job were much more likely to have recently looked for work⁴ than workers with a full-time main job. And among workers with a part-time main job, moonlighters, especially women, were more likely than single jobholders to have looked for work.

A part-time main job has become common among female moonlighters; in 1993, this situation applied to almost half of female moonlighters. In fact, women accounted for more than 70% of all moonlighters whose main job entailed less than 30 hours of work per week.

Some 45% of moonlighters whose main job was part time had a postsecondary certificate or diploma or a university degree, compared with just 33% of part-timers who

had only one job. And more than three-quarters of these well-educated moonlighters were women. The over-representation of well-educated workers among these moonlighters suggests that some of our most highly trained people may be unable to find suitable full-time jobs.

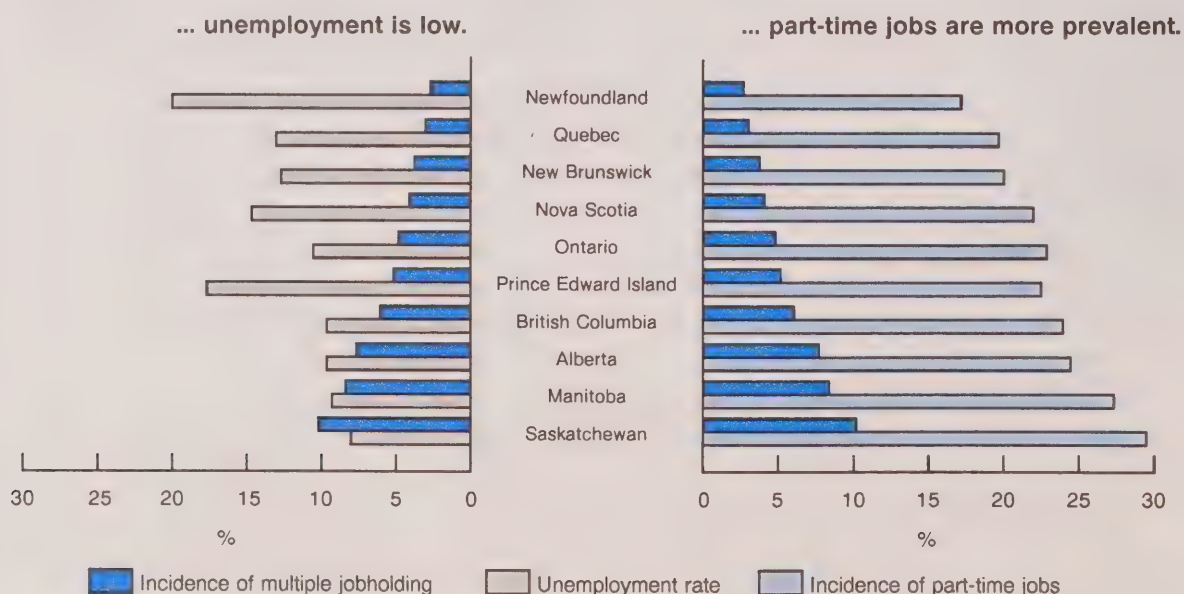
The provincial picture

The incidence of multiple jobholding varies considerably by province. In 1993, Saskatchewan had the highest rate (10.1%), followed by Manitoba (8.4%) and Alberta (7.6%); Newfoundland had by far the lowest (2.7%).

Since 1977, multiple jobholding has shifted sharply westward. By 1993, 44% of all moonlighters worked in the four western provinces (British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba), up from 35% in 1977. At the same time, the proportion accounted for by Ontario and Quebec dropped from 59% to 51%. This shift in moonlighting

Chart B

Moonlighting tends to be more common in provinces where ...



Source: Labour Force Survey, 1993

is particularly remarkable as the shares of total employment held by these provinces changed only marginally during the same period.⁵

At first glance, one might assume that at least part of the provincial differences in moonlighting arise from the high rate in agriculture, an industry that provides a larger-than-average share of total employment in the three Prairie provinces. But such is not the case. Provincial moonlighting rates remain virtually the same even when agriculture is excluded from the calculations.⁶

Accordingly, general labour market conditions seem to play an important role. Indeed, moonlighting has tended to be more common in provinces with relatively low rates of unemployment. In addition, in 1993, moonlighting was also more frequent in provinces with a higher proportion of part-time work (Chart B).

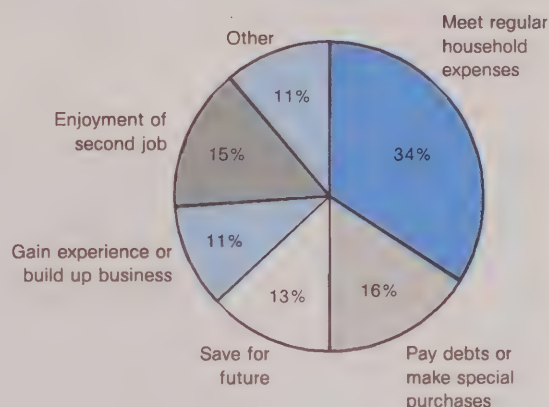
Why they moonlight

Financial concerns are the main motivation for moonlighting. According to the Survey of Work Arrangements (SWA), in November 1991, one-third of moonlighters who were paid workers in their main job needed a second job in order to meet regular household expenses.⁷ A somewhat smaller group (29%) were saving for the future, paying off debts, or planning to buy something special. Some 15% of multiple jobholders stated that they held a second job because they "enjoyed the work," while 11% were "gaining experience" or "building up a business" (Chart C). These findings were similar for both men and women.⁸

Information from the Survey of Consumer Finances (SCF) seems to confirm the relationship between economic need and moonlighting. The April 1993 SCF showed that moonlighting was most prevalent among workers who had earned less than \$20,000 in 1992. Indeed, these "low-earners" accounted for 43% of multiple jobholders,

Chart C

One-third of moonlighters took a second job to meet regular household expenses.



Source: Survey of Work Arrangements, November 1991

compared with 38% of single jobholders. In addition, the incidence of moonlighting generally declined as earnings rose.

The SCF also seems to support the SWA finding that a substantial minority of moonlighters take second jobs for other reasons. Fully one-quarter of moonlighters in April 1993 had earned \$40,000 or more in 1992.

Where are the second jobs?

The distribution by industry of second jobs is quite different from that of first jobs. In November 1991, more than 70% of moonlighters who were paid employees in both jobs reported that their second jobs were in one of five industries: retail trade (18%); health and social services (14%); education services (14%); accommodation, food and beverage services (12%); and other services (12%).⁹ (These five industries accounted for just 44% of paid employment in November 1991.)

Among moonlighters who were paid workers in their main job, those in education services, health and social services, or retail trade were most likely to have their second job in the same industry as their first. In contrast, moonlighters with a main job in manufacturing seldom had their second jobs in the same industry.

Three industries in particular – accommodation, food and beverage services; retail trade; and other services – provided many more of moonlighters' second than first jobs. That is, workers from other industries often found second jobs in these industries.

Self-employment and moonlighting

Multiple jobholding has always been closely linked with self-employment. Some persons with a new business may need a second job or they may have to retain their main job to stabilize their income until their business has grown. As well, some self-employed with seasonal businesses may need to supplement their income with a second job. Such second jobs, when they overlap the period of the main business, would be considered moonlighting. Also, according to LFS definitions, anyone who owns and operates a second business would be considered a multiple jobholder.

In 1993, the incidence of moonlighting among workers who were self-employed in their main job was 6.4%, up from 4.0% in 1977. The moonlighting rate for workers who were paid employees in their main job was 4.8% in 1993, up from 2.2% in 1977. Nearly one-fifth of moonlighters reported that they were self-employed in their main job, that is, they owned and operated a business, farm, or professional practice. And more than one-third of moonlighters were self-employed in their second job.

Overall, in 1993, more than 160,000 paid workers had a second job in which they were self-employed. As well, some 58,000 of the self-employed had a second job as a paid worker, while more than 60,000 of the self-employed had a second self-employed job (that is, a second business venture).

Multiple jobholders by class of worker, 1993

Class of worker in main job	Class of worker in second job					
	All classes	Paid workers	Self-employed			Unpaid family workers
			Total	With paid help	Without paid help	
'000						
Both sexes						
All classes*	628	383	227	47	180	19
Paid workers	501	322	164	27	137	15
Self-employed	122	58	61	19	42	--
With paid help	47	15	30	15	15	--
Without paid help	76	43	31	4	27	--
Men						
All classes*	329	171	153	35	118	5
Paid workers	250	138	108	19	89	4
Self-employed	78	32	45	16	29	--
With paid help	36	10	25	13	12	--
Without paid help	42	22	20	--	17	--
Women						
All classes*	299	212	74	12	62	14
Paid workers	251	184	56	8	48	11
Self-employed	45	26	17	4	13	--
With paid help	11	5	5	--	--	--
Without paid help	34	21	12	--	11	--

Source: Labour Force Survey

* Includes unpaid family workers.

Work patterns of second jobs

In November 1991, the overwhelming majority of moonlighters, more than 90%, worked every week at their second job. Typically, they worked one or two days per week, with women being more likely than men to work just one day. However, nearly 30% of moonlighters reported that the number of days worked at their second job varied from one week to the next, while 17% stated that they worked five or more days per week.

On average, men worked about 14 hours per week at their second job, women about 11 hours. More than 30% of both men and women said that their daily hours (and hence, their weekly hours) varied.

Summary

The incidence of moonlighting seems to reflect local economic conditions, as general-

ly it is highest in provinces with low unemployment. Moonlighting is also more common in provinces where part-time jobs are more prevalent.

In the 1970s, most moonlighters were men. Today, nearly as many women as men moonlight, and the incidence among women is higher. And a rising proportion of moonlighters, mainly women and frequently well educated, have a part-time main job.

On the one hand, moonlighting among well-educated workers highlights their difficulties finding and keeping suitable full-time employment. On the other, well-educated workers should be more able to piece together full-time employment from a collection of part-time jobs. □

Notes

¹ The rate or incidence of multiple jobholding shows the number of multiple jobholders in any group as a percentage of all workers in that group.

² The service-producing industries are transportation and storage; communication and other utilities; wholesale trade; retail trade; finance and insurance; real estate operators and insurance agents; business services; government services; education services; health and social services; accommodation, food and beverage services; and other services. The goods-producing industries consist of agriculture, fishing, forestry, mining, manufacturing, and construction.

³ The LFS defines the full-time employed as persons who usually work 30 or more hours per week, plus those who usually work less than 30 hours but consider themselves to be employed full time (for example, airline pilots). Persons who hold two or more part-time jobs would be considered to be employed full time if their usual hours at all jobs totalled 30 or more per week.

⁴ According to the LFS, recent job search means having looked for work at some time during the previous four weeks.

⁵ The four western provinces accounted for 30% of total employment in 1993, up from 28% in 1977. Ontario's and Quebec's share dropped from 64% to 63% during this period.

⁶ The exclusion of agriculture lowered moonlighting rates in Manitoba and Alberta by 0.3 percentage points, but had almost no effect on rates in other provinces. In Saskatchewan, the moonlighting rate in agriculture (9.7%) was actually lower than the rate for all other industries (10.1%).

⁷ This distribution of respondents by main reason for moonlighting is based only on those who replied; one-third of respondents, 44% of men and 24% of women, did not answer this question.

⁸ Data from the United States Current Population Survey provide comparable results. A May 1991 survey showed that 31% of 7.2 million American moonlighters were meeting regular household expenses. Some 26% were paying off debts, saving for the future, or planning to buy something special, while 16% stated that they had a second job because they enjoyed the work.

⁹ Other services consists mainly of amusement and recreation services plus personal and household services.

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What's new?

Just released

Focus on Canada reports analyze the state of the nation

The 1991 *Focus on Canada* series comprises 11 reports covering a wide array of topics including population dynamics, children and youth, families, senior citizens and language. Six reports cover labour market and income issues and are briefly described below.

Earnings of Canadians: John Gartley (Catalogue 96-317E)

Data on the 1990 earnings of men and women are compared with their earnings in earlier census years (1971, 1981, 1986). The report describes the relationship between earnings and total income, and provides the demographic and economic characteristics of earners, with emphasis on full-time, full-year workers. Changes in average earnings since 1970 are discussed for the regions, men and women, and level of work activity. All earnings are expressed in constant 1990 dollars.

The Self-Employed: Art Gardner (Catalogue 96-316E)

The report compares the two groups of self-employed workers: employers, who have paid help, and independent workers, who do not. Recent trends in self-employment are examined, and the demographic and socio-

economic characteristics of workers are discussed, including their education and immigrant status. Data are also presented on hours and weeks worked by the self-employed, their incorporation status, industry and occupation, and income. Where appropriate, the characteristics of the self-employed are compared with those of employees.

Family Income in Canada: Abdul Rashid (Catalogue 96-318E)

In recent years, the incomes of Canadian families have not increased in real terms and, at times, they have actually declined. Using data from the 1971 to 1991 Censuses, the report examines the distribution of and overall change in family incomes over the last two decades, as well as the impact of improved educational attainment and new family work patterns on husband-wife families. Lone-parent families and changes in income inequalities are discussed in separate chapters.

Female Baby Boomers – A Generation at Work: Diane Galarneau (Catalogue 96-315E)

The experiences of women born during the baby boom – defined as the 20 years from 1946 to 1965 – are compared with the experiences of women of the preceding and succeeding generations. Using data from the 1971, 1981 and 1991 Censuses, the educational attainment, marital and family status, labour force activity, occupation and

income of these women are explored. Where appropriate, comparisons are made with men in the same age group.

Canada's Changing Immigrant Population:
Jane Badets and Tina W.L. Chui
(Catalogue 96-311E)

Since the late 1970s, Canada's immigration policy has had three broad objectives: to reunite families, to provide a safe haven for refugees, and to foster economic development by selecting business immigrants and skilled workers. The report explores the changing profile of landed immigrants following the implementation of this policy. Topics discussed include changes in the composition and size of the immigrant population, and the locations in which immigrants have settled; impact on the ethnic and linguistic character of Canada; demographic characteristics – age, marital status, fertility; educational attainment; labour force activity; and occupation. A separate chapter describes the basic demographic and socio-economic characteristics of non-permanent residents, that is, people on student or work visas, Minister's permits, and refugee claimants.

Canadians on the Move: Bali Ram,
Y. Edward Shin, and Michel Pouliot
(Catalogue 96-309E)

The report explores the extent of mobility among Canadians since 1961 at the national, provincial and territorial levels. "Movers" or "migrants" are people whose usual place of residence on census day differed from that on the same day five years earlier. The study discusses the ways in which movers differ from non-movers, including demographic, language and immigration status, with a special focus on the employment and income characteristics of migrants.

The *Focus on Canada* series is jointly published by Statistics Canada and Prentice Hall Canada. All reports are available through Prentice Hall. Orders can be placed

by writing to Order Desk, Prentice Hall Canada Inc., 1870 Birchmount Road, Scarborough, Ontario M1P 2J7. Phone (416) 299-3621; or fax (416) 299-2529. □

Guide to income data outlines how and when to use census information

The *1991 Census Technical Reports: Income* describes the concepts, definitions and methods used to collect and process the data gathered by the 1991 Census. Information about data quality is presented so that users can determine which data are best suited to their needs, and understand the limitations that should be placed on their interpretation.

In eight brief chapters, the report outlines:

- concepts and definitions underlying the sources that make up total income
- data collection and extent of coverage
- data assimilation – the process of transforming individual responses into machine-readable form
- editing and imputation of data – the correction of errors or inconsistencies and the completion of missing or incomplete responses
- data evaluation
- historical comparability – the description of differences between 1991 data and data collected in previous censuses, especially in regard to content and coverage.

The report includes a reproduction of the income segment of the census questionnaire. Related census products and services are also described. *1991 Census Technical Reports: Income* (Catalogue 92-340E) is available for \$20 from any Statistics Canada Reference Centre, or from Marketing Divi-

sion, Sales and Service, Statistics Canada, Ottawa K1A 0T6; fax (613) 951-1584. Or call toll free 1 800 267-6677. □

Employment equity products now available on diskette

The Employment Equity Data Program provides statistical information on Canadians in the four designated groups defined in the Employment Equity Act. Using statistics from the Census of Population and the Health and Activity Limitation Survey (HALS), the Program provides data describing the socio-economic characteristics of women, Aboriginal peoples, persons with disabilities, and persons who are members of a visible minority.

The 1991 Employment Equity Data Report, based on the 1991 Census and the 1991 HALS, has recently been released on diskette. It includes a series of data tables for the four designated groups, providing important socio-economic variables (education, labour force, etc.) for Canada, the provinces, and 25 census metropolitan areas (17 for persons with disabilities). The *Browser Software* diskette (\$150) allows users to browse data tables. The *XV Software* diskette (\$250) allows users to extract, manipulate and print selected variables for selected geographic areas.

Products available in hard copy (paper) include the *1991 Employment Equity Data Information Kit* and a number of fact sheets. The information kit contains data highlights at the Canada level, definitions and description of methodology, and answers to some frequently asked questions. The *Employment Equity Fact Sheets* provide a two-page overview of the four designated groups resident in the provinces and 17 census metropolitan areas, including Halifax, Montreal, Toronto, Winnipeg, Regina, Edmonton, Calgary and Vancouver. Fact sheets are also available for each of the visible minority sub-groups (Blacks, South

Asians, Chinese, Koreans, Japanese, South East Asians, Filipinos, other Pacific Islanders, West Asians and Arabs, Latin Americans and multiple visible minorities.)

For more information on the products and services offered by the Employment Equity Data Program, contact your nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre. For general information about the Employment Equity Data Program, call (613) 951-0247. □

Survey of Consumer Finances has strong publications program

Every April, the Survey of Consumer Finances (SCF) collects data on the income of Canadians. Respondents in approximately 39,000 households are asked to provide information about the amount of income they received in the previous year and the sources of that income (earnings from employment, government transfer payments, pensions, investment, etc.). Because it is conducted as a supplement to the Labour Force Survey, the SCF is able to link demographic and labour force characteristics to the income data, to create a portrait of the economic well-being of Canadians.

The SCF supports an extensive publications program. Six publications are released annually: *Income Distributions by Size*, *Earnings of Men and Women*, *Household Facilities by Income and Other Characteristics*, *Family Incomes*, *Income After Tax*, and *Characteristics of Dual-Earner Families*.

Income Distributions by Size (Catalogue 13-207) is the first release in the cycle, appearing in November. Main findings of the 1992 report show that:

- Average family income in 1992 was \$53,676, virtually unchanged from the previous year. The recession of the early 1990s eroded half the gains made by families recovering from the 1981-82

recession, leaving 1992 income little changed from 1980.

- The rate of change in family income varied considerably depending on the type of family. Two-parent families averaged \$60,246 in 1992, halting the decline of earlier years; childless couples with one earner saw their income stabilize at \$42,326.
- Almost 17% of Canadians fell below Statistics Canada's low-income cutoffs in 1992, reflecting little change from the previous year. However, the number of people living below the LICOs increased to 4.5 million, of whom almost 1.3 million were children under the age of 18.

Earnings of Men and Women (Catalogue 13-217) is the second report in the publication cycle, released in December. The 1992 data show that women working full year full time continue to close the earnings gap, making 72% of men's earnings. This figure was up from 70% in 1991 and was due partly to men's stagnating earnings. (For more highlights from this report, see "What's New?", Summer 1994.)

Household Facilities by Income and Other Characteristics (Catalogue 13-218), the third release, which appears in January, amalgamates the SCF with the Household Facilities and Equipment Survey (HFE). The HFE collects data on the characteristics of Canadians' homes and household possessions – for example, size and type of dwelling, type of heating, cars, electronic equipment, labour-saving devices. The HFE is conducted one month after the SCF, using the same sample of households to permit easy linkage to the income data. Two separate time periods are covered: for example, with the 1993 HFE, the income data relate to the full 1992 calendar year and the facilities data, to May 1993. Findings of the 1993 report show that:

- Even though incomes remained virtually constant, households continued to acquire time-saving and leisure equipment. Among households in the highest income quintile (the 20% of households with the highest incomes), ownership of VCRs and CD players increased (to 93% and 53%, respectively). Households in the lowest income quintile also reported increased rates of VCR and CD player possession (to 52% and 16%, respectively).
- Generally speaking, single-family households had more possessions than multi-family or one-person households. Furthermore, single-family households with children under the age of 18 had higher-than-average rates of ownership of such items as VCRs, microwave ovens, dishwashers, home computers, and camcorders.
- Over the past decade, rates of home ownership have dropped steadily among households in the lowest income quintile, falling from 41% in 1983 to 35% in 1993. Rates have increased among households in all other income quintiles.

Family Incomes: Census Families (Catalogue 13-208), released in February, uses the census family as the basis of its analysis. (The census family consists of married couples – or lone parents – and their never-married children living in the same dwelling; the economic family consists of two or more people related to each other by blood, marriage or adoption and living in the same dwelling. Census families therefore are more like the nuclear family.) Highlights of the 1992 report show that:

- Average census family real income in 1992 was unchanged from 1991, at \$52,504. Following two consecutive falls in income, this result may reflect a bottoming out of the effects of the recession.

- Real income differed considerably by census family type. The 1992 income for two-parent families averaged \$58,996, more than double that of female lone-parent families (\$23,168).
- In real terms, census family income was not much different in 1992 than in 1980. However, average per capita income was almost 8% higher as average family size declined from about 3.3 to 3.1 persons.
- Families that lived alone (not sharing accommodation with other individuals or families) tended to have higher incomes than those sharing housing.

Income After Tax (Catalogue 13-210) is released in March. Among the highlights of the 1992 edition are:

- Personal income taxes took 19.2%, or \$10,316, of the average family's income in 1992, down from 19.8% in 1991.
- After-tax income for all families was unchanged from 1991, because the loss of non-governmental income (mainly from work) was offset by increases in government transfers.
- Average after-tax income of families in the lowest quintile was \$16,346, of which almost three-quarters came from government transfers, while that of families in the highest quintile was \$80,053.
- Cash transfer payments accounted for 12.7%, or \$6,795, of average family income before taxes. This was up from 12.0% in 1991.

Characteristics of Dual-Earner Families (Catalogue 13-215) – families in which both spouses reported income from employment – is the final publication in the cycle, and is released in April. Highlights of the 1992 edition include:

- Dual-earner families accounted for 60.8% of all husband-wife families in 1992, continuing the slight decline begun in 1989, when their share was 62.3%.
- The average income of dual-earner families rose slightly to \$67,352 in 1992. Husbands' earnings contributed 55.1% to the family income, and wives', 30.7%; the remainder of the family's income came from earnings of other family members, investment income, transfer payments and pensions.
- The average earnings of wives working full year, full time were \$28,278, about 66.2% of that earned by husbands also working full year, full time.

For further information about the Survey of Consumer Finances or the Household Facilities and Equipment Survey, call the Income and Housing Surveys Section at (613) 951-4633. All publications described above are available from any Statistics Canada Reference Centre, or from Marketing Division, Sales and Service, Statistics Canada, Ottawa K1A 0T6; fax (613) 951-1584. Or call toll free 1 800 267-6677. □

Research Paper Series, Analytical Studies Branch

What is Happening to Earnings Inequality in Canada?

R. Morissette, J. Myles and G. Picot
Research Paper No. 60

During the 1980s, the inequality in the annual earnings of Canadian workers increased noticeably. This growing gap did not stem solely from the 1981-82 recession, nor from the replacement of well-paid manufacturing jobs with service sector ones. The gap grew partly because of increasing differences in earnings between age groups,

but mostly because of growing inequality between groups of workers.

In the United States, earnings inequality resulted mainly from changes in hourly wages during the 1980s. But the authors contend that in Canada, the overall increase in earnings inequality was driven principally by shifts in the distribution of annual hours worked. Such small change in hourly wages as did occur at the Canada level can be attributed to two contradictory trends: (1) an increasing wage gap between younger and older workers, which tends to widen inequality; and (2) simultaneous changes in the composition of employment (from manufacturing to service) and declining hourly wage dispersion within age groups, which tends to narrow inequality. These findings imply that the main forces increasing earnings inequality in Canada, in addition to cyclical factors, were a redistribution of the number of annual hours worked and changes in hourly wages among age groups.

Structural Change in the Canadian Manufacturing Sector (1970-1990)
John Baldwin and M. Rafiquzzaman
Research Paper No. 61

This study examines five broad areas in the manufacturing sector: the natural resource-based, the labour-intensive, the scale-based, the product-differentiated, and the science-based. Three aspects of change are discussed: changes in the importance of each area to the economy as a whole; changes in the importance of individual industries to each area and job turnover within those particular industries; and the widening of wage differentials over time. The analysis covers the national and regional levels.

Papers presented at the conference on *A comparison of labour markets in the last two recessions* (see "What's New?", Autumn 1993) are also available in this research series.

These and other studies in the Research Paper Series are available from the

Analytical Studies Branch, Statistics Canada, Ottawa K1A 0T6. Or call Kathleen Laflamme at (613) 951-8213. □

Special conferences

Symposium on the Greying of the Workforce: Implications and Responses
September 30, 1994.
Ottawa.

The second annual symposium organized by *Perspectives on Labour and Income* will discuss the aging of the workforce. The one-day event will examine the myths and realities of the situation of older workers, and identify the challenges faced by the labour market and the need for new policies and programs as Canada's workers age.

The overview session will present a demographic review of the past, present and future workforce to establish the context in which the rest of the discussion takes place. The backbone of the day's program will consist of the two panel presentations, the first on implications of an aging workforce (outcomes, problems, challenges) and the second on responses (policies and programs).

Panel participants from the private and public sectors will represent employers, organized labour and self-help groups, as well as individuals. Issues to be addressed by the panels will include conflict between younger and older workers, work arrangements, worker discouragement, job loss and absorption, international competitiveness, pensions and health-care costs, challenges to social programs, costs to individuals and their families, training and mobility, early and phased retirement, and self-employment.

A special luncheon presentation will outline programs and policies specifically designed to deal with an aging workforce, as they have been implemented or developed by countries with populations older than that of

Canada (for example, the Scandinavian countries, United Kingdom, France).

Registration is \$150. For information, call Ernest B. Akyeampong at (613) 951-4624 or Penny Basset at (613) 951-1906; or fax (613) 951-4179. □

Statisticians discuss collecting data on ethnicity

Ethnicity-based issues of equality and access, and subsequent equity legislation, have added much urgency to statisticians' concerns about the definition and measurement of ethnicity. *Challenges of Measuring an Ethnic World: Science, Politics and Reality* publishes the proceedings of the first international conference on issues surrounding the collection of statistics on race and ethnicity. (For a discussion about Statistics Canada's role, see "Defining and measuring employment equity," Winter 1993.)

The Joint Canada-United States Conference on the Measurement of Ethnicity, co-sponsored by Statistics Canada and the United States Bureau of the Census, encouraged countries that collect ethnic data to share their information and experiences. Those attending included data users from Canada and the United States, as well as representatives of the national statistical agencies of Australia, the United Kingdom, Malaysia, and the former Soviet Union. Participants addressed issues that affect question development, reporting, data processing and presentation, and suggested new approaches to the measurement of ethnicity.

Some of the conclusions reached by the conference participants include:

- There is no universally acceptable definition of ethnicity. Nevertheless, a standard definition of ethnicity should be used in censuses, surveys and administrative records.
- Selecting measures of ethnicity will be influenced by demographic changes, equality issues, legislative requirements and court challenges, as well as by testing programs and research conducted by statisticians.
- Statistical agencies should recognize that the intrinsic malleability of ethnicity, particularly during periods of rapid social change, is not a sufficient reason to avoid collecting data on ethnicity. Inconsistencies in data over time may be due to the flux in ethnicity rather than flaws in data collection.
- The census is the only statistical instrument that can provide reliable data on ethnicity for numerically small groups and for small geographic areas. In the future, censuses should address the dual dimensions of identity and ancestry: the first is a person's primary identity among the major ethnic groups in a society, while the second is his or her descent from among a broad range of ethnic groups.
- Statistical agencies cannot meet all data needs, therefore, constitutional and legislative requirements have first priority. The needs of community, research, academic, business, ethnic and other non-profit groups should be considered.
- Race and ethnicity data are not neutral and can be used for many purposes, some of which may not be benign. More research should be done on the impact of data collection on stereotypes and divisiveness.

Challenges of Measuring an Ethnic World: Science, Politics and Reality, the proceedings of the Joint Canada-United States Conference on the Measurement of Ethnicity, may be ordered for \$35 from your nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre. □



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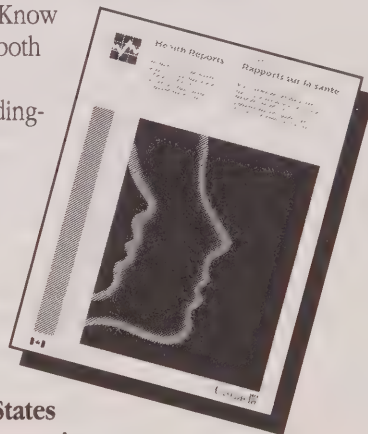
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Key labour and income facts

The following selection of labour and income indicators is drawn from 11 sources and includes published and unpublished annual data. These indicators appear in every issue.

The latest annual figures are always shown; as results become available, the indicators are updated so that every issue contains new data. An indicator updated or revised since the last issue is "flagged" with an asterisk.

Data sources

The indicators are derived from the following sources:

- 1-13 & 15 Labour Force Survey**
Frequency: Monthly
Contact: Doug Drew (613) 951-4720
- 14 Survey of Consumer Finances**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Kevin Bishop (613) 951-2211
- 16 Absence from Work Survey**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Nancy Brooks (613) 951-4589
- 17 National Work Injuries Statistics Program**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Joanne Proulx (613) 951-4040
- 18 Help-wanted Index**
Frequency: Monthly
Contact: André Picard (613) 951-4045
- 19-20 Unemployment Insurance Statistics Program**
Frequency: Monthly
Contact: André Picard (613) 951-4045

- 21-28 Survey of Employment, Payrolls and Hours**
Frequency: Monthly
Contact: Cindy Ingalls (613) 951-4090
- 29-31 Major wage settlements, Bureau of Labour Information (Human Resources Development)**
Frequency: Quarterly
Contact: Information (819) 997-3117
- 32-34 Labour income (Revenue Canada, Taxation; Survey of Employment, Payrolls and Hours; and other surveys)**
Frequency: Quarterly
Contact: Ed Bunko (613) 951-4048
- 35-45 Survey of Consumer Finances**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Kevin Bishop (613) 951-2211
- 46-52 Household Facilities and Equipment Survey**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Penny Barclay (613) 951-4634
- 53-54 Small area and administrative data**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Customer Services (613) 951-9720

Notes and definitions of certain indicators are given at the end of the table.

Additional data

The table provides, at the most, two years of data for each indicator. A longer time series (generally 10 years) for this set of indicators can be obtained, on paper or diskette, at a cost of \$50. (A more extensive explanation of the indicators is also available.) This 10-year data set is updated quarterly. For information, contact Jeannine Usalcas at (613) 951-6889; fax (613) 951-4179.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
Labour market								
1	Labour force	'000	1992	13,797	236	64	416	331
			1993	13,946	234	65	419	332
	Change	%		1.1	-0.9	1.1	0.6	0.3
2	Participation rate	%	1992	65.5	53.6	65.8	59.9	59.0
			1993	65.2	52.8	65.3	59.8	59.0
3	Employed	'000	1992	12,240	188	53	361	289
			1993	12,383	186	53	357	291
	Change	%		1.2	-0.9	1.0	-1.1	0.6
4	Proportion of employed working part time	%	1992	16.8	13.5	16.4	17.5	15.6
			1993	17.3	14.2	17.2	17.8	16.0
5	Proportion of part-timers wanting full-time work	%	1992	32.5	62.1	43.4	45.5	45.9
			1993	35.5	63.8	43.5	47.7	50.4
6	Unemployed	'000	1992	1,556	48	11	55	42
			1993	1,562	47	12	61	42
	Change	%		0.4	-0.6	1.5	11.7	-1.6
7	Official unemployment rate	%	1992	11.3	20.2	17.7	13.1	12.8
			1993	11.2	20.2	17.7	14.6	12.6
Alternative measures of unemployment								
8	Unemployed 14 or more weeks as a proportion of the labour force	%	1992	5.5	10.2	7.3	6.0	5.4
			1993	5.6	10.7	7.8	7.0	5.4
9	Unemployment rate:							
	– of persons heading families with children under age 16	%	1992	9.7	19.0	17.4	10.9	11.5
			1993	9.5	19.1	17.9	12.5	11.4
	– excluding full-time students	%	1992	11.0	20.1	17.9	12.7	12.6
			1993	10.9	20.0	18.0	14.3	12.3
	– including full-time members of the Canadian Armed Forces	%	1992	11.2	20.1	17.6	12.8	12.6
			1993	11.1	20.1	17.7	14.2	12.4
	– of the full-time labour force	%	1992	13.6	23.6	21.4	16.6	16.0
			1993	13.9	24.0	21.6	18.3	16.1
	– of the part-time labour force	%	1992	14.1	21.7	12.0	16.7	15.6
			1993	14.4	21.5	13.0	18.0	15.7
	– including discouraged workers and others on the margins of the labour force	%	1992	12.1	24.4	18.7	14.1	14.8
			1993	12.0	24.4	18.9	15.6	14.2

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
3,385	5,286	535	480	1,370	1,693	1992	'000	1
3,404	5,362	540	479	1,384	1,728	1993		
0.6	1.4	0.9	-0.2	1.0	2.0		%	
62.5	67.3	66.0	66.6	71.9	66.3	1992	%	2
62.2	66.9	66.6	66.6	71.5	65.7	1993		
2,953	4,714	484	440	1,240	1,517	1992	'000	3
2,960	4,793	490	440	1,252	1,561	1993		
0.2	1.7	1.3	-	1.0	2.9		%	
15.1	17.3	19.4	18.4	16.4	18.0	1992	%	4
15.7	18.1	19.4	18.4	17.1	17.8	1993		
38.0	29.1	32.8	35.4	27.8	27.9	1992	%	5
41.9	32.0	34.3	38.2	31.7	30.0	1993		
432	572	51	39	130	176	1992	'000	6
444	569	50	38	132	167	1993		
2.9	-0.5	-2.8	-2.4	1.7	-5.0		%	
12.8	10.8	9.6	8.2	9.5	10.4	1992	%	7
13.1	10.6	9.2	8.0	9.6	9.7	1993		
6.8	5.4	4.0	3.4	3.8	4.5	1992	%	8
7.2	5.5	4.3	3.4	4.1	4.3	1993		
10.6	9.1	8.1	7.3	8.5	9.1	1992	%	9
10.3	8.9	7.6	7.0	9.0	8.0	1993		
12.6	10.3	9.2	8.0	9.3	10.3	1992	%	
12.8	10.2	8.8	7.8	9.2	9.5	1993		
12.7	10.8	9.5	8.2	9.4	10.4	1992	%	
13.0	10.6	9.2	8.0	9.5	9.6	1993		
15.3	12.8	12.4	11.4	11.3	12.8	1992	%	
15.8	13.1	12.2	11.3	11.7	12.0	1993		
15.3	14.8	12.9	9.6	13.1	11.9	1992	%	
16.8	14.0	12.3	10.9	14.5	12.5	1993		
14.2	11.3	10.2	8.8	9.9	10.7	1992	%	
14.6	11.0	9.9	8.5	9.9	10.1	1993		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
10	Underutilization rate based on hours lost through unemployment and underemployment	%	1992 1993	14.3 14.6	24.3 24.8	22.0 22.3	17.5 19.1	17.1 17.3
11	Proportion unemployed six months or longer	%	1992 1993	28.1 30.8	29.3 33.0	-- --	23.9 26.8	22.2 23.8
Other labour market indicators								
12	Employment/population ratio for persons aged:							
-	15 to 24 years	%	1992 1993	53.5 52.1	32.4 30.5	49.4 51.3	48.0 46.7	46.9 46.5
-	25 to 64 years	%	1992 1993	70.0 70.1	53.7 53.4	67.1 66.0	64.5 63.3	63.5 63.8
-	65 years and over	%	1992 1993	6.4 6.2	3.1 2.3	7.2 6.2	3.6 4.0	4.0 3.7
13	Employment by major class of worker:							
-	employees	'000	1992 1993	10,372 10,399	162 159	43 44	314 306	253 253
-	self-employed	'000	1992 1993	1,807 1,912	26 27	10 10	46 51	35 36
14	Men working full time, full year	'000	1991 1992	5,126 5,091	68 65	18 19	143 132	115 118
	Women working full time, full year	'000	1991 1992	3,419 3,423	45 48	13 13	93 96	79 82
15	Days lost per full-time worker per year through illness or for personal reasons	days	1992 1993	9.2 9.3	10.7 9.4	7.9 7.7	9.0 9.8	8.9 8.5
*16	Proportion of paid workers absent two or more consecutive weeks because of illness or accident	%	1992 1993	5.6 5.8	4.1 4.8	4.0 4.6	5.4 6.1	6.0 5.5
17	Workers receiving Workers' Compensation for time-loss injuries	'000	1991 1992	521 456	9 8	2 2	13 12	12 10
	Change	%		-12.5	-17.3	-6.3	-4.3	-14.2
18	Help-wanted Index (1991 = 100)		1992 1993	86 87	88 82	96 117	87 88	82 89

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
15.8	13.6	13.1	12.1	12.1	13.3	1992	%	10
16.4	13.9	13.0	12.2	12.6	12.7	1993		
33.1	29.8	23.6	21.0	20.4	22.5	1992	%	11
34.2	33.3	26.9	23.2	24.4	24.2	1993		
										12
48.8	55.3	58.3	54.4	59.7	58.8	1992	%	
46.9	53.7	58.4	55.1	58.6	57.5	1993		
65.3	72.2	73.6	76.6	75.3	72.2	1992	%	
65.4	72.5	74.5	76.6	75.3	72.1	1993		
4.7	7.0	7.1	12.6	10.1	5.0	1992	%	
4.1	6.8	7.8	13.3	9.5	5.2	1993		
										13
2,545	4,068	399	328	1,007	1,253	1992	'000	
2,529	4,095	403	327	1,007	1,275	1993		
394	630	80	102	224	259	1992	'000	
415	674	83	104	232	279	1993		
1,264	1,981	194	188	534	621	1991	'000	14
1,237	1,999	199	187	510	624	1992		
819	1,388	122	114	331	415	1991	'000	
825	1,393	133	108	325	401	1992		
10.7	9.0	8.4	8.1	7.7	8.6	1992	days	15
10.4	9.1	9.7	8.6	7.9	9.3	1993		
5.9	5.2	7.8	3.8	5.9	5.8	1992	%	16
6.3	5.5	5.5	4.3	4.5	7.1	1993		
179	155	18	13	39	79	--	1	1991	'000	17
146	137	17	12	32	78	--	1	1992		
-18.1	-11.9	-8.6	-5.6	-17.1	-1.6	--	-2.3		%	
87	86	93	83	76	87	1992		18
92	86	91	83	80	84	1993		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
Unemployment insurance								
*19	Total beneficiaries	'000	1992	1,388	81	16	65	67
			1993	1,292	71	16	63	65
	Change	%		-6.9	-13.1	0.8	-2.4	-2.1
*20	Regular beneficiaries without reported earnings	'000	1992	1,005	63	11	46	51
			1993	931	56	11	44	49
	Change	%		-7.5	-12.2	-0.3	-3.4	-4.4
Earnings (including overtime) and hours								
21	Average weekly earnings in current dollars	\$	1992	549.80	510.65	444.70	491.10	494.39
			1993	559.24	526.86	453.74	495.80	503.30
	Change	%		1.7	3.2	2.0	1.0	1.8
22	Average weekly earnings in 1986 dollars	\$	1992	429.20	418.22	350.43	391.31	395.51
			1993	428.87	424.54	350.92	390.39	397.55
	Change	%		-0.1	1.5	0.1	-0.2	0.5
23	Average weekly earnings of salaried employees in current dollars	\$	1992	691.04	621.71	599.84	621.34	624.15
			1993	705.03	641.80	608.24	620.64	637.67
	Change	%		2.0	3.2	1.4	-0.1	2.2
24	Average weekly earnings of salaried employees in 1986 dollars	\$	1992	539.45	509.18	472.69	495.09	499.32
			1993	540.67	517.16	470.41	488.69	503.69
	Change	%		0.2	1.6	-0.5	-1.3	0.9
25	Average weekly earnings of hourly paid employees in current dollars	\$	1992	421.51	381.63	285.01	375.98	393.56
			1993	428.70	406.10	297.56	382.35	402.62
	Change	%		1.7	6.4	4.4	1.7	2.3
26	Average weekly earnings of hourly paid employees in 1986 dollars	\$	1992	329.05	312.56	224.59	299.59	314.85
			1993	328.76	327.24	230.13	301.06	318.03
	Change	%		-0.1	4.7	2.5	0.5	1.0
27	Average weekly hours of hourly paid employees	hrs	1992	30.5	33.5	30.4	31.7	33.1
			1993	30.6	33.9	30.7	31.7	33.4
28	Average weekly overtime hours of hourly paid employees	hrs	1992	0.8	0.9	0.3	0.6	0.7
			1993	0.9	1.0	0.4	0.6	0.7
Major wage settlements								
29	Number of agreements		1992	493	11	5	5	14
			1993	499	15	3	10	3
30	Number of employees	'000	1992	1,318	28	7	5	30
			1993	1,415	37	6	18	3
31	Effective wage increase in base rates	%	1992	2.1	0.1	0.3	1.8	1.6
			1993	0.7	0.1	-	5.2	2.8

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
433	400	40	31	97	154	2	2	1992	'000	19
404	365	37	29	90	146	2	2	1993		
-6.6	-8.9	-6.8	-4.9	-7.0	-5.4	33.0	-6.4		%	
322	285	26	21	69	108	1	2	1992	'000	20
302	257	24	20	63	101	2	2	1993		
-6.2	-9.6	-7.9	-7.7	-8.5	-6.7	35.0	-9.8		%	
537.13	578.30	488.66	472.35	546.59	549.09	677.86	714.13	1992	\$	21
543.14	591.13	492.6	473.95	554.15	561.23	678.78	705.38	1993		
1.1	2.2	0.8	0.3	1.4	2.2	0.1	-1.2		%	
417.35	448.29	385.30	371.93	432.43	431.67	1992	\$	22
416.20	450.56	378.34	362.35	433.27	426.47	1993		
-0.3	0.5	-1.8	-2.6	0.2	-1.2		%	
654.66	733.38	632.38	618.11	703.25	682.99	835.62	813.88	1992	\$	23
662.07	752.50	641.92	623.42	717.06	703.37	845.26	822.55	1993		
1.1	2.6	1.5	0.9	2.0	3.0	1.2	1.1		%	
508.67	568.51	498.72	486.70	556.37	536.94	1992	\$	24
507.33	573.55	493.03	476.62	560.64	534.48	1993		
-0.3	0.9	-1.1	-2.1	0.8	-0.5		%	
429.49	436.08	365.83	336.67	387.98	441.91	494.62	576.41	1992	\$	25
435.35	444.36	369.75	336.15	398.57	446.85	472.39	556.94	1993		
1.4	1.9	1.1	-0.2	2.7	1.1	-4.5	-3.4		%	
333.71	338.05	288.51	265.09	306.95	347.41	1992	\$	26
333.60	338.69	283.99	257.00	311.63	339.55	1993		
-	0.2	-1.6	-3.1	1.5	-2.3		%	
31.5	30.6	30.0	28.3	29.3	29.2	31.0	33.1	1992	hrs	27
31.6	30.7	29.7	27.9	29.7	29.1	30.6	32.1	1993		
0.7	0.9	0.7	0.7	1.1	0.8	2.2	2.6	1992	hrs	28
0.8	1.0	0.7	0.7	1.3	0.8	1.7	2.7	1993		
90	174	17	8	44	66	1992		29
120	146	18	13	54	48	1993		
469	347	19	12	77	170	1992	'000	30
559	235	41	40	101	103	1993		
1.1	2.4	2.4	3.3	3.6	3.5	1992	%	31
0.2	1.4	0.8	1.1	0.3	2.3	1993		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
Labour income								
*32	Labour income in current dollars	\$ million	1992	386.4	5.1	1.2	9.6	7.7
			1993	396.3	5.2	1.3	9.8	7.9
	Change	%		2.6	0.9	2.8	1.5	2.7
*33	Labour income per employee in current dollars	\$	1992	36,300	31,200	27,700	30,400	29,900
			1993	37,000	32,000	28,000	31,900	30,600
	Change	%		1.9	2.6	1.3	4.9	2.6
*34	Labour income per employee in 1986 dollars	\$	1992	28,400	25,600	21,800	24,300	23,900
			1993	28,400	25,800	21,700	25,100	24,200
	Change	%		0.1	1.0	-0.6	3.7	1.3
35	Net income from self-employment as a proportion of money income	%	1991	5.5	3.7	6.6	4.4	4.2
			1992	5.1	3.3	6.5	3.7	4.3
Earnings of full-time, full-year workers								
36	Average earnings of men working full time, full year	\$	1991	38,600	33,400	30,500	35,300	34,700
			1992	39,500	36,200	32,600	37,600	35,200
	Change	%		2.3	8.3	6.6	6.7	1.2
37	Average earnings of women working full time, full year	\$	1991	26,800	24,500	24,700	23,200	23,000
			1992	28,400	25,200	26,100	24,900	24,700
	Change	%		5.6	2.8	5.7	7.1	7.3
38	Ratio of female-to-male earnings	%	1991	69.6	73.4	80.8	65.8	66.1
			1992	71.8	69.7	80.1	66.0	70.2
Family income								
39	Average family income	\$	1991	53,100	41,700	42,800	45,100	44,300
			1992	53,700	42,100	44,400	46,900	46,500
40	Median family income	\$	1991	46,700	36,600	38,000	39,400	38,700
			1992	47,700	36,800	39,400	40,500	41,700
41	Average income of unattached individuals	\$	1991	22,500	18,200	16,500	19,100	19,900
			1992	23,200	19,600	18,800	18,800	19,000
42	Median income of unattached individuals	\$	1991	17,300	13,100	12,200	14,700	15,100
			1992	17,600	13,900	14,400	13,100	14,300
43	Average family taxes	\$	1991	10,500	6,700	7,000	8,100	7,600
			1992	10,300	6,700	7,100	8,500	7,900
44	Average family income after tax	\$	1991	42,600	35,000	35,800	37,000	36,700
			1992	43,400	35,500	37,200	38,400	38,600

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
90.0	162.6	12.8	9.9	37.0	48.3	0.6	1.2	1992	\$ million	32
91.9	165.6	13.0	10.0	38.0	51.4	0.6	1.2	1993		
2.1	1.8	1.8	1.3	2.7	6.5	0.8	3.1		%	
34,600	39,100	31,600	29,600	35,000	37,000	1992	\$	33
35,200	39,500	31,900	30,100	35,800	38,600	1993		
1.8	1.0	0.8	1.7	2.3	4.4		%	
26,900	30,300	25,000	23,300	27,700	29,100	1992	\$	34
27,000	30,100	24,500	23,000	28,000	29,300	1993		
0.4	-0.7	-1.8	-1.3	1.1	0.9		%	
4.3	5.7	6.7	10.3	6.4	5.5	1991	%	35
4.2	5.3	6.5	8.7	4.4	6.4	1992		
36,700	41,500	31,900	31,900	39,300	38,700	1991	\$	36
37,300	42,200	34,900	32,700	38,700	40,900	1992		
1.6	1.6	9.2	2.6	-1.5	5.7		%	
25,700	29,000	23,800	22,100	25,300	27,100	1991	\$	37
27,600	30,400	24,500	23,100	27,200	28,600	1992		
7.1	4.8	2.6	4.4	7.5	5.4		%	
70.1	69.8	74.7	69.4	64.5	70.2	1991	%	38
73.9	71.9	70.2	70.6	70.3	70.0	1992		
48,600	58,600	46,600	45,900	55,600	54,900	1991	\$	39
48,600	58,800	50,300	48,200	54,700	56,400	1992		
42,700	52,000	41,300	40,900	48,100	50,600	1991	\$	40
43,800	52,800	43,700	41,300	47,700	50,300	1992		
20,700	24,700	20,400	20,000	23,500	22,600	1991	\$	41
21,100	26,300	18,900	20,300	22,900	23,400	1992		
15,200	20,000	16,000	14,600	19,100	18,200	1991	\$	42
15,000	20,300	14,600	14,600	17,700	20,600	1992		
10,100	11,800	8,300	8,600	11,000	10,600	1991	\$	43
9,400	11,700	9,100	8,200	10,200	10,900	1992		
38,500	46,900	38,300	37,400	44,500	44,300	1991	\$	44
39,200	47,100	41,200	40,000	44,500	45,500	1992		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
45	Proportion below the low income cut-offs (1992 base):							
	- families	%	1991 1992	12.9 13.3	16.2 18.4	10.6 7.2	12.9 13.8	12.3 11.5
	- unattached individuals	%	1991 1992	40.0 39.7	50.8 44.5	49.0 38.1	40.2 48.5	39.7 40.3
	- persons (population)	%	1991 1992	16.5 16.8	18.1 20.7	15.4 11.4	16.2 17.8	14.9 14.0
	- children (less than 18 years)	%	1991 1992	18.9 18.9	20.3 26.4	17.3 12.3	21.0 20.5	19.2 15.6
	- elderly (65 years and over)	%	1991 1992	21.7 20.6	20.6 21.7	19.7 14.5	19.0 20.0	15.5 13.8
	Households and dwellings							
46	Estimated number of households and dwellings	'000	1992 1993	10,056 10,247	177 182	46 47	329 336	256 256
47	Average household income	\$	1991 1992	46,100 46,800	39,200 39,500	37,700 39,400	39,800 40,600	40,200 41,500
48	Proportion of households with:							
	- VCRs	%	1992 1993	73.8 77.3	74.6 76.9	69.6 74.5	75.4 77.7	73.4 78.9
	- microwaves	%	1992 1993	76.0 79.1	68.9 72.0	69.6 76.6	76.9 79.5	76.2 82.0
	- two or more automobiles	%	1992 1993	24.6 23.8	11.9 14.8	23.9 25.6	20.1 19.4	19.9 21.5
	- vans and trucks	%	1992 1993	26.8 28.4	36.2 33.5	32.6 34.0	28.9 27.7	34.0 36.7
	- air conditioners	%	1992 1993	26.7 25.7	-- --	-- --	4.9 3.9	6.6 10.2
49	Proportion of all dwellings that are owner-occupied	%	1992 1993	63.1 64.1	78.5 78.6	69.6 74.5	71.4 72.3	75.4 76.2
50	Proportion of all owner-occupied dwellings that are mortgage free	%	1992 1993	50.6 48.3	68.3 70.6	53.1 54.3	57.0 53.1	56.0 52.8
51	Dwellings in need of repair as a proportion of all occupied dwellings	%	1992 1993	26.7 22.0	31.1 31.3	28.2 25.6	34.3 27.1	32.4 26.1
52	Median rent-to-income ratio	%	1992 1993	22 22	16 16	23 20	22 24	19 19

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
45										
15.4	11.2	17.4	13.6	13.0	10.6	1991	%	
14.8	11.1	14.2	13.8	16.2	13.5	1992	%	
47.8	34.9	43.5	37.2	36.2	39.1	1991	%	
48.9	33.6	48.3	38.3	39.8	34.1	1992	%	
19.5	14.0	22.7	17.8	16.6	15.4	1991	%	
18.7	14.0	19.9	18.1	20.2	17.1	1992	%	
20.1	17.5	29.3	21.9	19.5	14.5	1991	%	
18.3	16.2	23.3	22.8	24.2	19.8	1992	%	
27.3	19.7	24.7	12.4	21.1	21.8	1991	%	
28.9	15.9	23.6	12.1	24.0	20.8	1992	%	
2,656	3,647	396	359	912	1,278	1992	'000	46
2,688	3,765	387	361	923	1,302	1993		
41,600	51,500	39,700	39,600	48,700	46,000	1991	\$	47
41,900	51,800	42,500	41,200	48,000	48,000	1992		
48										
69.1	76.8	71.2	69.4	78.4	73.3	1992	%	
72.6	79.7	75.5	71.7	82.3	78.6	1993	%	
72.9	77.7	75.5	81.3	81.0	73.6	1992	%	
75.9	80.0	79.8	84.8	84.8	78.0	1993	%	
20.9	27.9	22.2	21.7	28.4	25.0	1992	%	
22.7	25.6	22.5	21.3	26.5	22.6	1993	%	
17.4	23.3	31.1	44.6	43.4	35.1	1992	%	
17.3	25.6	35.7	44.3	44.7	39.2	1993	%	
14.0	48.6	49.0	34.3	10.0	7.5	1992	%	
15.3	44.7	45.7	33.8	8.9	9.1	1993	%	
55.0	63.9	67.4	71.6	65.5	65.7	1992	%	49
56.4	64.4	69.5	71.7	67.8	66.1	1993	%	
47.3	48.0	56.2	60.3	47.9	54.5	1992	%	50
46.3	46.6	53.9	60.6	45.7	47.1	1993	%	
25.1	25.4	32.1	30.6	28.7	24.8	1992	%	51
20.7	20.9	26.6	23.8	25.7	20.4	1993	%	
20	23	23	21	21	25	1992	%	52
21	23	22	20	23	25	1993	%	

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.	Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
*53 Labour force income profile							
Number of taxfilers	'000	1992	19,267	385	89	624	512
Income:							
Number reporting	'000	1992	19,649	394	91	642	525
Amount	\$ million	1992	486,751	7,442	1,832	13,881	10,715
Median	\$	1992	18,600	13,800	15,900	16,200	15,200
Canadian index (median income)	%	1992	100.0	74.2	85.5	87.1	81.7
Labour force income:							
Number reporting	'000	1992	14,281	289	69	451	373
Amount	\$ million	1992	367,898	5,806	1,375	10,280	8,075
Employment income:							
Number reporting	'000	1992	13,928	273	68	438	361
Amount	\$ million	1992	350,358	4,779	1,175	9,500	7,241
Median	\$	1992	19,900	10,200	12,000	16,800	14,700
Canadian index (median employment income)	%	1992	100.0	51.3	60.3	84.4	73.9
Self-employment income:							
Number reporting	'000	1992	1,993	32	11	53	36
Amount	\$ million	1992	21,415	255	106	684	343
Unemployment Insurance benefits:							
Number reporting	'000	1992	3,446	150	31	147	143
Amount	\$ million	1992	17,541	1,027	200	780	834
*54 Economic dependency profile							
Transfer payments:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	90,397	2,223	513	3,266	2,693
Employment income	\$ million	1992	350,358	4,779	1,175	9,500	7,241
Economic dependency ratio (EDR)		1992	25.80	46.52	43.63	34.38	37.20
Canadian index (EDR)	%	1992	100.0	180.3	169.1	133.3	144.2
Unemployment Insurance benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	17,541	1,027	200	780	834
Contribution to EDR	%	1992	5.01	21.50	17.05	8.21	11.52
Family Allowance benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	2,831	64	15	92	77
Contribution to EDR	%	1992	0.81	1.34	1.24	0.97	1.06
Federal sales tax credits:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	2,740	68	15	98	84
Contribution to EDR	%	1992	0.78	1.43	1.24	1.03	1.16
Child Tax Credit benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	2,419	65	14	85	74
Contribution to EDR	%	1992	0.69	1.37	1.22	0.90	1.02
Old Age Security benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	11,807	199	59	402	318
Contribution to EDR	%	1992	3.37	4.16	5.02	4.23	4.39
CPP/QPP benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	15,116	229	63	551	385
Contribution to EDR	%	1992	4.31	4.78	5.37	5.80	5.31
Other pension benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	20,154	257	78	753	483
Contribution to EDR	%	1992	5.75	5.37	6.62	7.93	6.66
Non-taxable income/provincial tax credits:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	17,790	314	69	504	439
Contribution to EDR	%	1992	5.08	6.57	5.86	5.30	6.07

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
53										
4,861	7,211	771	653	1,741	2,368	19	33	1992	'000	
4,972	7,332	788	669	1,765	2,418	19	33	1992	'000	
112 382	198,714	17,183	14,283	45,555	62,748	558	1,018	1992	\$ million	
17,000	20,700	16,400	15,800	19,300	19,500	24,300	22,000	1992	\$	
91.4	111.3	88.2	84.9	103.8	104.8	130.6	119.4	1992	%	
3,500	5,353	553	486	1,384	1,778	17	29	1992	'000	
85,877	149,875	12,471	10,075	35,582	47,071	494	915	1992	\$ million	
3,392	5,232	541	478	1,359	1,740	16	28	1992	'000	
80,457	144,653	11,999	9,689	34,376	45,143	468	879	1992	\$ million	
19,200	22,300	17,600	15,100	19,800	20,500	23,900	23,900	1992	\$	
96.5	112.1	88.4	75.9	99.5	103.0	120.1	120.1	1992	%	
358	722	104	139	254	278	3	2	1992	'000	
4,413	8,807	855	972	1,799	3,144	20	18	1992	\$ million	
1,037	1,054	114	91	261	407	5	6	1992	'000	
5,419	5,223	472	386	1,207	1,929	27	36	1992	\$ million	
54										
22,406	35,166	3,502	2,899	6,609	10,957	61	102	1992	\$ million	
80,457	144,653	11,999	9,689	34,376	45,143	468	879	1992	\$ million	
27.85	24.31	29.19	29.92	19.23	24.27	12.98	11.58	1992		
107.9	94.2	113.1	116.0	74.5	94.1	50.3	44.9	1992	%	
5,419	5,223	472	386	1,207	1,929	27	36	1992	\$ million	
6.74	3.61	3.93	3.98	3.51	4.27	5.70	4.10	1992	%	
693	1,015	119	116	295	334	3	9	1992	\$ million	
0.86	0.70	0.99	1.20	0.86	0.74	0.71	1.03	1992	%	
760	925	121	105	240	318	2	4	1992	\$ million	
0.94	0.64	1.01	1.09	0.70	0.70	0.48	0.51	1992	%	
616	784	119	121	255	274	3	9	1992	\$ million	
0.77	0.54	0.99	1.25	0.74	0.61	0.54	0.97	1992	%	
2,868	4,472	569	517	857	1,538	4	5	1992	\$ million	
3.56	3.09	4.74	5.34	2.49	3.41	0.78	0.58	1992	%	
3,499	6,146	637	561	1,092	1,942	6	5	1992	\$ million	
4.35	4.25	5.31	5.79	3.18	4.30	1.26	0.60	1992	%	
4,182	8,594	774	640	1,493	2,886	8	7	1992	\$ million	
5.20	5.94	6.45	6.60	4.34	6.39	1.69	0.82	1992	%	
4,370	8,007	692	452	1,171	1,737	8	26	1992	\$ million	
5.43	5.54	5.77	4.67	3.41	3.85	1.81	2.96	1992	%	

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Notes and definitions

No.

- 1 Persons aged 15 and over who are employed or unemployed.
- 2 The labour force as a proportion of the population aged 15 and over.
- 4 Persons who usually work less than 30 hours per week.
- 7 The unemployed as a proportion of the labour force.
- 8 This rate and rates shown as Indicators 9 and 10 are described in *Perspectives on Labour and Income* (Statistics Canada, Catalogue 75-001E) 4, no. 4 (Winter 1992): 35-43.
- 9 The full-time labour force includes persons working full time, those working part time involuntarily, and unemployed persons seeking full-time work.

The part-time labour force includes persons working part time voluntarily and unemployed persons seeking part-time work.

Discouraged workers and others on the margins of the labour force are persons who have looked for work in the past six months, but not during the reference week because they believed none was available or because they were waiting for recall or for replies from employers.

- 10 The rate shows hours lost through unemployment (unemployed multiplied by average actual weekly hours) and through underemployment (that is, short-time work schedules and involuntary part-time employment) as a proportion of hours worked plus hours lost.
- 12 The number of persons employed in an age group expressed as a percentage of the population for that age group.
- 13 Employees work for an employer for remuneration, usually in the form of a wage or salary.

Self-employed workers are working owners of incorporated or unincorporated businesses with or without paid help.

No.

- 29 Data are for agreements involving bargaining units of 500 or more employees. The total includes federal and provincial agreements.
- 32 Labour income comprises gross wages and salaries (including directors' fees, bonuses, commissions, gratuities, taxable allowances and retroactive pay) and supplementary labour income (payments made by employers for the benefit of employees, including contributions to health and welfare schemes, pension plans, Workers' Compensation and Unemployment Insurance).
- 33 Labour income per employee is calculated using LFS estimates of paid workers excluding those absent without pay during the entire reference week.
- 45 For an explanation of the methodology underlying the low income cut-offs, see *Income Distributions by Size in Canada* (Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207).
- 52 The rent-to-income ratio refers to rent in the reference year divided by income in the previous year.
- 53-54 Data are derived from tax returns filed in the spring of the year following the reference year. The mailing address at the time of filing determines the province.

Economic dependency ratio:

$$\text{EDR} = \frac{\text{Total transfer payments}}{\text{Total employment income}} \times 100$$

(Example: An EDR of 23.47 indicates that for each \$100 in employment income earned by Canadians in 1991, an additional \$23.47 of income was received in the form of transfer payments.)

In the works

Here are some of the topics to be featured in upcoming issues of Perspectives on Labour and Income.

■ **Sexual harassment in the workplace**

The extent of sexual harassment in the workplace has long been a subject of debate. The 1993 Violence Against Women Survey provides data about the incidence and nature of workplace sexual harassment.

■ **A tale of three cities**

An overview of the changing industrial structure in the census metropolitan areas of Montreal, Toronto and Vancouver since 1971.

■ **High income families**

A profile of families in the top percentile of the income distribution. The analysis will cover the sources and composition of these families' incomes in 1990.

■ **Baby boomers: A generation at work**

How has employment changed for women of the baby-boom generation since the 1970s? This study compares women born in the early years of the baby boom with those born in the later years.

■ **An interview with David Foot**

David Foot – economist, demographer, pedagogue and futurist – comments on the past, present and future of the baby-boom generation.

■ **People living alone**

One in six Canadian adults aged 30 to 54 lives alone. In a year celebrating the family, this article looks at the almost one million Canadians in the "prime of life" who live solo.

PERSPECTIVES ON LABOUR AND INCOME
The quarterly for labour market and income information

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Householders are remarkably aware of the many steps they can take to reduce the household's impact on the environment. Some of these steps are simple, requiring only a change in a product brand. Others require a greater effort -- digging out weeds by hand, rather than using a pesticide on a lawn.

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This 40-page publication includes detailed analysis of socio-economic characteristics related to household environmental practices, and highlights Canadian's efforts to:

- conserve energy and water
- recycle and compost waste
- manage potentially harmful products

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- recycling services
- composters
- own shopping bags
- programmable thermostats
- energy-saving light bulbs
- low-flow showerheads

...and much more!

This one-of-kind publication highlights such interesting details as:

- **53% of households have access to recycling, and 86% of these households use the services available.**
- **Nearly 1 in 5 households compost waste.**
- **19% of households in Ontario use water filters or purifiers.**
- **63% of households with infants use disposable diapers exclusively.**

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the environment
1991**

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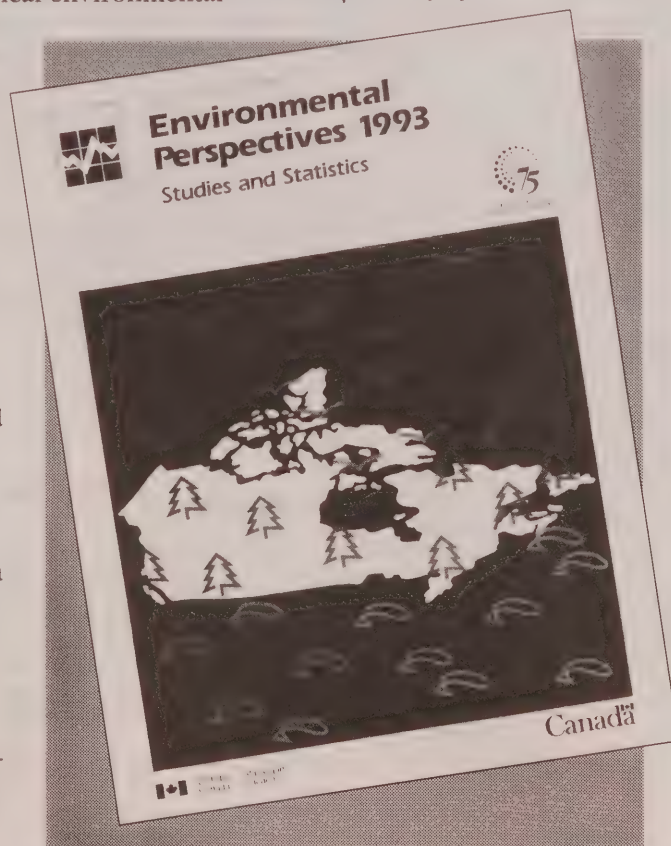
Statistics Canada has just released a new publication entitled *Environmental Perspectives 1993: Studies and Statistics*. Based on results of recently conducted surveys and studies, this new release is written to help you understand some of today's most topical environmental concerns. This 100-page publication explores five themes:

- industrial impacts on the environment
- agricultural land use
- household environmental behaviour
- waste management and recycling
- natural resource accounting

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In this one-of-a-kind report, you will discover such provoking facts as:

- 9% (by weight) of waste collected by municipalities with a population greater than 50,000 was recycled in 1990
- only 15% of Canadian households report that at least one member uses public transit to travel to and from work
- the generation of electricity was the single largest source of greenhouse gases of all industrial activity in 1985



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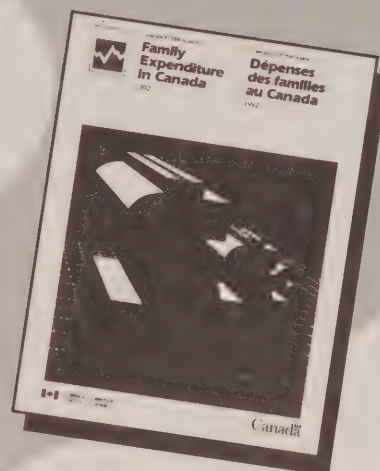
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WINTER 1994



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Virtual Foto

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Symbols

The following standard symbols are used in Statistics Canada publications:

- .. figures not available
- ... figures not appropriate or not applicable
- nil or zero
- amount too small to be expressed
- p preliminary figures
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Forum

Letter from the Editor-in-Chief

■ In the coming years, anyone who has even a fleeting exposure to statistics will hear more and more about longitudinal surveys. Longitudinal, or panel, surveys differ from their cross-sectional cousins in that they keep returning to the same respondents over and over to document the changes in their circumstances. They are not a new idea, but they are now being used more frequently (I hesitate to use the word "commonly"). Statistics Canada has several "in the field" right now: the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics; the National Longitudinal Survey of Children; the National Population Health Survey; and, not strictly speaking a survey, but an interesting use of administrative data, the longitudinal tax files produced by the Small Area and Administrative Data Division.

Readers may harbour suspicions that longitudinal surveys are just another toy for statisticians. What do they tell us that we don't know already? To illustrate, consider a standard business practice – the maintenance of personnel files. Events in an employee's career with a given company are recorded over time, producing a long-term record of that individual's promotions, grievances, training, special leave, pension benefits, and so on. A company would find it very difficult to manage its human resources if its personnel files were closed at the end of the year, and new ones were opened on January 1 – there would be no history, no

dynamic, no cause and effect to relate to an employee's work performance. Yet this is the situation in which policy-makers find themselves when they try to address a social problem using only cross-sectional data. Longitudinal surveys are the equivalent of personnel files.

One of the areas in which longitudinal data are most valuable is low income policy. Despite collecting extensive data on the characteristics of low income families, we know very little about the flows into and out of low income. The cross-sectional data researchers use now cannot tell us about the duration of the period of low income – is it a single "off" year for the family, or has the situation persisted over several years? In the case of lone mothers, whose situation is accompanied by low rates of labour force participation, some women do escape the low income trap. Data that described how they changed their circumstances would be invaluable – was it a better education, better pay, or better day care, and how did they achieve it? Using longitudinal data, policy-makers can target the most appropriate programs to the most appropriate recipients.

And in an environment of fiscal restraint, accurate targeting of social policies is a desirable goal. Longitudinal data are welcomed as a necessary tool in developing efforts at better targeting because their analytical power rests in their statistical description of "outcomes"; that is, they offer a base for researching the link between cause and effect. For example, there are a number of questions that can now be

answered by the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics: What transforms laid-off workers into successful job-seekers? What steps did they take to find new employment? What, if any, is the impact of place of residence and career flexibility on their success?

Another issue that cannot be settled without longitudinal data is that of job mobility and flexibility. It is widely believed that workers will have to make frequent career changes as jobs are transformed in the information age. (It has been stated in the pages of this publication.) But we really have no idea how often people change their occupations or their employers over the course of their working lives. For example, cross-sectional data can show that 100,000 people worked in occupation X in 1985 and 80,000 in 1990 – a net loss of 20,000 workers over five years. But it cannot identify the composition of this change: whether 100,000 new people entered the occupation and 120,000 left, or nobody entered and 20,000 left. These two interpretations tell radically different stories, both with vastly different implications, and only longitudinal data can distinguish one from the other.

And, to get right back to basics, what of the impact that formative life experiences have on a worker's future? A regular cross-sectional survey cannot relate childhood and adolescent experiences to the ease or difficulty with which adults establish themselves in the labour market. Data that will help analysts more confidently correlate early causes with later outcomes are being developed by the National Longitudinal Survey of Children.

Perspectives readers are a pragmatic lot and are probably asking why, if longitudinal surveys are so useful, they are only being introduced in "a big way" now. (In fact, given their limitations, why persist in conducting cross-sectional surveys?) Simply put, longitudinal surveys are expensive to develop and to conduct; they are also burdensome to the respondents, who are called upon

year after year to answer lengthy questionnaires. And until recently, the computing power required for the operational aspects of such surveys was not so easily and cheaply available.

By the way, although longitudinal surveys are conducted for years at a time, data are released each year as soon as a base has been built. So *Perspectives* readers will soon see analysis based on results of the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics in these pages. A vivid demonstration of the analytical possibilities inherent in longitudinal surveys will do far more to encourage appreciation of their virtues than any amount of explanatory preamble.

Ian Macredie
Editor-in-Chief

□

Letter to the Editor

■ When the boss winked and told us "Jake just called in sick again," knowing looks passed between the workers. It was common knowledge that Jake occasionally "flipped out." When this happened, even close friends of his would take part in the whispers and chuckles. Our workplaces, with their conflicting values and pressures, can influence the way we treat each other and think of ourselves. The mentally ill are perhaps the most discriminated against in our society.

I've worked in the same place for the last 12 years. I have manic depressive illness. I explained my illness to curious co-workers, but just being truthful can be full of horror for mental health survivors. There's some job protection for people who are ill for long periods of time. But we still have to deal with the stigma that surrounds mental illness. And neither my employer nor my union does much to make that easier to bear.

The condition shows either as terrible depression or extreme elation or psychosis. Signs of an impending manic episode can be very deceiving indeed. They can include increased productivity and a virtual flow of creative ideas that are admired, accepted and often implemented. You might compare this stage to heaven, though hell is just around the corner. While devastating if untreated, usually manic depression can be controlled successfully with Lithium, a natural salt.

Initial and following episodes of manic depression can be triggered by stress in the workplace. The threat or actual loss of your job, constant pressure from the boss, or a demotion, can set the stage for an episode. Events over which the person has no control, and thus feels helpless to correct, are often triggers.

Some survivors are forced into jobs that have less stress, less challenge and less pay in order to keep their illnesses at bay. They watch promotions pass them by, or feel guilty about hiding their history of mental illness. Stress around hiding the problem can cause lower productivity and a host of physical problems, as well as possible mental relapse.

Employers should treat workers with mental illnesses the same as those with other health problems. Then we could be honest with our employers without fear of reprisal. While it takes guts to reveal such potentially damaging information, people get along better when the truth is respected. Management, working with our unions, needs to be more direct in telling workers that discrimination is not acceptable.

We live in a world where rejection of the mentally ill is commonplace. Knowing unions are making inroads into social justice issues such as sexual harassment in the workplace, I feel that the potential for fair treatment of workers with mental illness exists. Ideally, we'll soon see the common use of educational and employee assistance pro-

grams in this area. With acceptance through education there is hope. I look for the day when Jake calls in sick, and only words of compassion are spoken by his co-workers and friends.

Sincerely,

Jane Caron
Member of the Board
Depressive and Manic Depressive
Association of Ontario □

Editor's note: Information about Canadians aged 15 and over who experience activity limitations due to mental health conditions was gathered by the 1991 Health and Activity Limitations Survey. Limited data are available for a number of demographic and socio-economic characteristics. For information, contact Renée Langlois, Manager, at (613) 951-4532.

We welcome your views on articles and other items that have appeared in *Perspectives on Labour and Income*. Additional insights on the data are also welcome, but to be considered for publication, communications should be factual and analytical. We encourage readers to inform us about their current research projects, new publications, data sources, and upcoming events relating to labour and income.

Statistics Canada reserves the right to select and edit items for publication. Correspondence, in either official language, should be addressed to: Susan Crompton, Forum and What's new? Editor, *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, 5-D Jean Talon Building, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6. Telephone (613) 951-0178; fax (613) 951-4179.

Highlights

Here are some key findings from the articles in this issue of Perspectives on Labour and Income.

Work-related sexual harassment

■ According to the 1993 Violence Against Women Survey, in the previous 12 months approximately 389,000 or 6% of all employed women aged 18 and over had experienced at least one form of work-related sexual harassment.

■ Young women and single women, as well as women with some postsecondary education, were the most likely to have been harassed.

■ As might be expected, the lifetime rate of work-related sexual harassment was much higher than the past year's rate – 23% of Canadian women, about 2.4 million, have encountered work-related sexual harassment.

David Foot discusses career paths

■ "The career path has to change. You can no longer expect to be linearly promoted to the top; now you've got to have a spiral career path. You've got to mix lateral with promotional moves. This means that the age of the specialist is going, and the age of the generalist is re-emerging. The specialist can do only one occupation, whereas lateral moves often are associated with changes in occupation and in the sort of skills needed."

■ "There are a lot of overworked people now in their mid-forties to early fifties, who have their mortgages largely paid off, who might willingly work four days a week for 80% salary. Or three days a week for 60% salary. Or nine months a year for 75% salary. Management saves huge bucks by doing this, because it's the highest-paid workers who are most likely to take advantage of this opportunity. Furthermore, half of a senior manager's salary pays the full salary of a new, young labour market entrant."

Baby boom women

■ The "baby boom" spanned two decades. This article divides baby boom women into two cohorts or "waves": those born between 1946 and 1955 and the others between 1956 and 1965.

■ In 1971, 54% of the first wave of baby boom women, then aged 16 to 25, were in the labour force. This compared with 39% of all women that year. Ten years later, 70% of second-wave baby boom women (aged 16 to 25) were in the labour force.

■ Increasingly, baby boom women were postponing marriage. At ages 26 to 35, 20% of second-wave women had never married, compared with 14% of the first wave and 11% of pre-boom women (those born between 1936 and 1945) at the same age.

■ Baby boom women had more formal education than did the previous generation. As well, the level of educational attainment of the second wave surpassed that of the first. At ages 26 to 35, 16% of second-wave women were university graduates. The corresponding figures were 13% for first-wave women and just 5% for pre-boom women.

■ As each wave aged and upgraded its education, the proportions in managerial and male-dominated professional positions increased. Second-wave women were considerably more likely than the first wave to hold such occupations.

Adults living solo

■ Over the past decade, the number of people aged 30 to 54 living alone has almost doubled; by 1993, they totalled close to one million, accounting for 9.2% of all adults in this age group.

■ The greatest increase was among men, 10.9% of whom lived alone in 1993, compared with 6.9% in 1982; the corresponding figures for women were 7.5% and 5.5%.

■ In 1993, women living alone were more likely than women in larger households to be working – 76% versus 68%. However, the employment rates of solo women depended on their marital status: those who had never married had a much higher rate (82%) than those who were separated/divorced (69%) or the few who were widowed (58%).

■ On the other hand, solo men were less likely than those in larger households to be employed – 74% compared with 84%.

■ A higher proportion of employed solos than non-solos held white-collar jobs: 37%

versus 33% for men and 53% versus 39% for women.

■ In 1992, the average annual income of solos aged 30 to 54 was \$30,750, slightly above that of non-solos in the same age group (\$29,000).

■ One in seven solo householders – 132,000 or 15% – did not work in 1992. Government transfer payments were the major source of income for most (83%) of them. This translated into an annual average income of \$10,500.

Three large urban areas in transition

■ The three largest census metropolitan areas (CMAs), that is, Montreal, Toronto and Vancouver, together accounted for a third of all employment in Canada in 1991.

■ During the 1971 to 1991 period, the shift in Canada's industrial structure toward a service-based economy was reflected in these three urban areas. This movement reduced the goods-producing share of total employment in each CMA.

■ In both Montreal and Toronto, the largest manufacturing employment losses were primarily in the same industries: clothing and textiles, metal fabricating, and electrical products. Vancouver's greatest manufacturing loss occurred in the wood industry.

■ The number of workers in services increased steadily in all three CMAs from 1971 to 1991. During these 20 years, service sector employment rose 75% in Montreal and more than doubled in Toronto and Vancouver.

■ The fastest growing industry in each CMA was financial and commercial services; from 1971 to 1991, employment doubled in Montreal, while in Toronto and Vancouver, numbers almost tripled.

High income families

■ The average family income in 1990 was \$51,300. Families in the top percentile had an income of at least \$185,000. Their average income was \$295,300.

■ Families in the top percentile received nearly 6% of all family income, 18% of all investment income and 24% of all income from self-employment (excluding farm self-employment).

■ High income families were highly concentrated in managerial, legal and medical occupations and tended to work beyond the usual age of retirement.

■ Self-employment was 3.5 times more common among parents in high income families (32%) than in all families (9%).

■ Seventy-four percent of wives in high income families were employed. One in four wives had an income between \$50,000 and

\$100,000 and nearly one in five had an income of \$100,000 or more. On average, they contributed 20% to family income in 1990.

What's new?

■ *Women in the Labour Force, 1994 edition*, focuses on the role women play in the labour market, and on the interaction of work and family.

■ *What is Happening to Weekly Hours Worked in Canada?* studies the erosion of the standard 35- to 40-hour work week, and the polarization of weekly hours worked.

■ The project team for the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID) has documented the development of this longitudinal survey. The studies and evaluations are published in the SLID research paper series. The series covers a mixture of topics, from a technical discussion of weighting to the questions asked in a computer-assisted interview.

■ The Special Surveys Division develops, designs and conducts surveys on behalf of numerous clients. Many of the public micro-data files are available on 3.5-inch diskettes for use on a PC. □

Work-related sexual harassment

Holly Johnson

Sexual harassment in the workplace is not easy to define or measure. The Canada Labour Code, for example, defines conduct as work-related sexual harassment if it is "... likely to cause offence or humiliation to any employee ..." or if it "... might, on reasonable grounds, be perceived by that employee as placing a condition of a sexual nature on employment or on any opportunity for training or promotion" (Canada Labour Code, 1989). However, incidents that may be classified as harassment vary both in the minds of people and in the policies developed by businesses, corporations, and governments. As a result, there is considerable controversy about exactly what constitutes work-related sexual harassment and, also, about the extent of the problem.

Although sexual harassment in the workplace was not its primary focus, the Violence Against Women Survey, conducted by Statistics Canada in 1993, offers some data on the subject (see *Data source*). This survey defined several unwelcome actions by men as sexual harassment:

- making the woman uncomfortable by commenting inappropriately about her body or sex life;

Holly Johnson is with the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics. She can be reached at (613) 951-0599.

Data source

The Violence Against Women Survey was conducted by Statistics Canada between February 1993 and June 1993 on behalf of the federal department, Health Canada. More than 12,000 women aged 18 and older living in the 10 provinces were interviewed by telephone. Respondents were selected at random, and their responses were weighted to represent the Canadian female population. Estimates are expected to be reliable within 1.2% of the true population, 19 times out of 20. Estimates of sub-populations have wider confidence intervals.

Respondents were asked about their experiences of sexual and physical assault since the age of 16, about their perceptions of their personal safety, and about their experiences of sexual harassment by men they knew and by strangers.

Because the focus of the Violence Against Women Survey was not work-related harassment, the data are limited. For instance, the survey did not include questions about the industries or occupations in which respondents worked. Nor did it ask respondents about the frequency of harassment, that is, whether these experiences occurred once or on several occasions.

Workplace sexual harassment was defined on the basis of the perpetrator's relationship to the woman - that is, boss, co-worker, client, customer, patient, or student. However, no data were collected on where the incident occurred. Therefore, it is possible that some incidents did not happen in the workplace, although they involved a man that the woman had encountered through her job.

- making her uncomfortable by repeatedly asking for a date and refusing to take "no" for an answer;
- leaning over her unnecessarily, getting too close, or cornering her;

- hinting that she could lose her job, or that her employment situation might suffer, if she did not have a sexual relationship with him.

For such incidents to be classified as work-related sexual harassment, the perpetrator had to be the woman's boss, co-worker, client, customer, patient, or student. As defined here, work-related sexual harassment excludes sexual assault (see *Work-related sexual assault*).

Young women most at risk

In the 12 months before the survey, 6% of employed women¹ aged 18 and over (approximately 389,000) had experienced at least one form of workplace sexual harassment (Table 1). Young women were the most likely to have been harassed. In 1993, 10% of 18 to 24 year-olds reported that they had experienced work-related sexual harassment in the previous 12 months. At older ages, harassment was less common.

Single women were more likely than married women to be harassed. Nine percent of employed women who were single had experienced harassment in the 12 months before the survey. And although a large proportion of single women were young, this pattern also prevailed at older ages. Single women aged 25 to 44 reported harassment rates comparable to those of unmarried 18 to 24 year-olds. By contrast, the rate among married² women was 5%.

Women's rates of work-related sexual harassment also differed by their level of education. Those with some postsecondary education had the highest rate: 8%. The lowest rate (4%) was among women at the extremes of the education continuum: less than high school completion or university graduation.

Table 1
Women who experienced work-related sexual harassment in past 12 months, selected characteristics

	Employed women	Reported harassment	
	'000	%	
Total	6,487	389	6
Age			
18-24 years	1,052	107	10
25-34 years	1,817	151	8
35-44 years	1,754	97	6
45 years and over	1,864	--	--
Marital status			
Single	1,463	133	9
Married*	4,255	201	5
Divorced/separated	613	50	8
Widowed	142	--	--
Not stated	--	--	--
Education			
Less than high school diploma	963	39	4
High school diploma	1,819	107	6
Some postsecondary	2,419	89	8
University degree	1,279	53	4
Not stated	--	--	--
Type of work			
Full-time	4,510	293	6
Part-time	1,975	96	5
Not stated	--	--	--
Personal income			
Less than \$10,000	1,312	73	6
\$10,000-\$19,999	1,652	84	5
\$20,000-\$39,999	2,325	162	7
\$40,000 or more	918	53	6
Not stated/don't know	280	--	--
Household income			
Less than \$20,000	695	46	7
\$20,000-\$39,999	1,499	71	5
\$40,000 or more	3,518	218	6
Not stated/don't know	775	54	7
Regions			
Atlantic	512	26	5
Quebec	1,509	66	4
Ontario	2,534	174	7
Prairies	1,119	75	7
British Columbia	812	47	6
Not stated	--	--	--

Source: Violence Against Women Survey, 1993

* Includes common-law.

Little relation to income or region

Women in all income ranges encountered work-related sexual harassment. Regardless of their personal or household income, women reported rates around the national average.

As well, the rate of workplace sexual harassment varied only slightly in different regions. The rate ranged from 4% in Quebec to 7% in Ontario and the Prairies.

Higher lifetime rate

In addition to information pertaining to the previous year, the Violence Against Women Survey gathered data on lifetime rates of workplace sexual harassment. Not surprisingly, these rates were much higher. Fully 23% of Canadian women, a total of 2.4 million, have encountered work-related sexual harassment.

Moreover, many women experienced more than one type of harassment during their working lives (Table 2). The most common, cited by 77% of women who had been harassed at work, concerned inappropriate comments about their bodies or sex lives. Next in frequency (73%) were accounts of men at work leaning over them unnecessarily, getting too close, or cornering them. As well, 50% of women who had been harassed reported a man repeatedly asking for a date and refusing to take "no" for an answer. The most serious type of work-related sexual harassment addressed in this survey – a man hinting that the woman could lose her job or that her employment situation might suffer if she did not have a sexual relationship with him – was reported by 18%.

Work-related sexual assault

While some definitions of harassment include touching or assault, the Violence Against Women Survey considered these actions to be sexual assault, not harassment. Six percent of women (approximately 593,000) reported having experienced at least one incident of workplace sexual assault. Unwanted sexual touching was more common than forced sexual activity (5% versus 1%), and co-workers and bosses were the most frequent offenders.

Table 2
Women who have ever experienced work-related sexual harassment, by type of harassment

	'000	%
All women (18 years and over)	10,498	
Ever harassed at work*	2,440	100
Type of harassment:		
Making inappropriate comments about her body or sex life	1,886	77
Leaning over unnecessarily, getting too close, or cornering her	1,770	73
Repeatedly asking for a date and not taking "no" for an answer	1,220	50
Saying her job situation might suffer if she did not have a sexual relationship with him	447	18

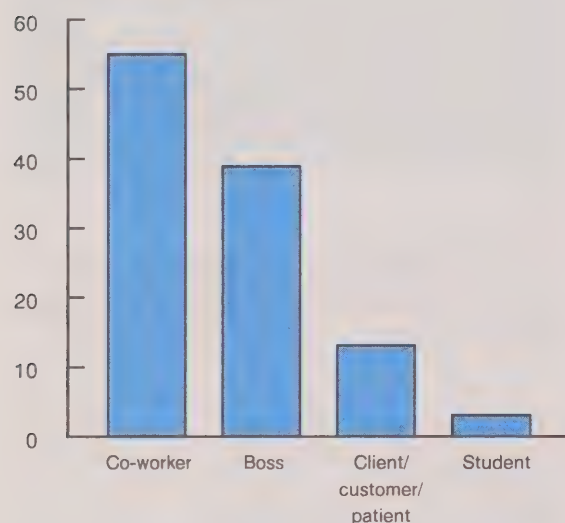
Source: Violence Against Women Survey, 1993

* Figures do not add to totals because of multiple responses.

Over half (55%) of women who had been sexually harassed at work reported incidents involving a co-worker (Chart). Harassment by a boss was reported by 39%, and by a client or customer, by 13%. In 3% of cases, teachers reported harassment by a student.

Over two million women have experienced work-related sexual harassment.

% of women ever harassed by:



Source: Violence Against Women Survey, 1993

Note: Figures do not add to 100% because of multiple responses.

Summary

According to the Violence Against Women Survey, over a 12-month period work-related sexual harassment affected 6% of working women. Young women and unmarried women were the most vulnerable to harassment. Rates varied between full- and part-time workers, but personal or household income had little relation to the likelihood of being harassed.

The lifetime rate of workplace sexual harassment was much higher than the past year's rate. Well over two million women reported having experienced at least one incident during their working lives. □

The author wishes to thank Douglas Norris and Josephine Stanic of the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, David Paton of the Social Survey Methods Division, and Karen Rodgers and Paul McPhie of the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, all of Statistics Canada; Cathy McRae of Status of Women Canada; the Research Department of the Canadian Advisory Council on the Status of Women; and the staff of the Family Violence Prevention Division of Health Canada for their valuable comments and suggestions in reviewing this article.

Notes

¹ Those who were paid workers or self-employed at the time of the survey or at any time in the 12 months preceding the survey.

² Includes common-law.

Reference

Revised Statutes of Canada 1985, updated to April 30, 1993, c. L-2.

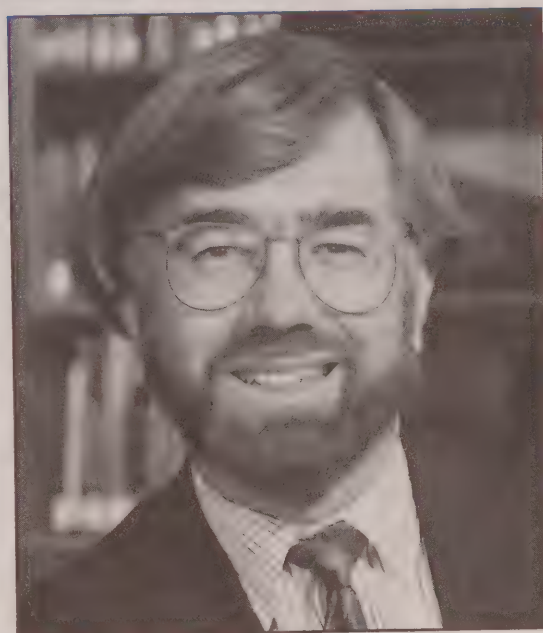
David Foot discusses career paths

Interview by Doreen Duchesne

Born in England and raised in Australia, David Foot is a Canadian economist and demographer with a Ph.D. in economics from Harvard University. He currently teaches economics at the University of Toronto. He has conducted research in a variety of areas, including education, youth unemployment, leisure and recreation, promotion opportunities, retirement, immigration, and government spending. His current research interests lie in the numerous relationships between economics and demographics, and their implications for both private and public policy, especially in a Canadian context. His research activities have resulted in findings that challenge widely held, but usually untested, views regarding the economic impact of demographic changes.

Professor Foot has published a number of books, most recently *The Over-Forty Society* (co-authored with Blossom T. Wigdor). He is also a consultant and social commentator and frequently provides submissions to commissions, task forces, and public and private study groups. He is a two-time recipient of the University of Toronto's undergraduate student teaching award and has received the national 3M Award for Teaching Excellence.

Doreen Duchesne was with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division. She can be reached at (613) 951-4381.



Q. Many workers of middle-management age today have plateaued at lower levels because of population pressure and the gradual disappearance of jobs as corporate hierarchies flatten out. Since most people work for 40 to 45 years, and the baby boomer generation spans 20 years, career blockage will probably continue for a long time. Is there a solution to this problem?

A. Until the early eighties, Canada always had more younger workers than older workers. In that kind of world, you structure your organizations to have fewer positions at the top and a lot more at the bottom. That's why we've built, over this century, tall, triangular corporate structures. Think of a government department: one deputy minister, two or three assistant deputy ministers, a number of directors, more managers, even more analysts ... It looks very much like a pyramid. The same is true in the private sector.

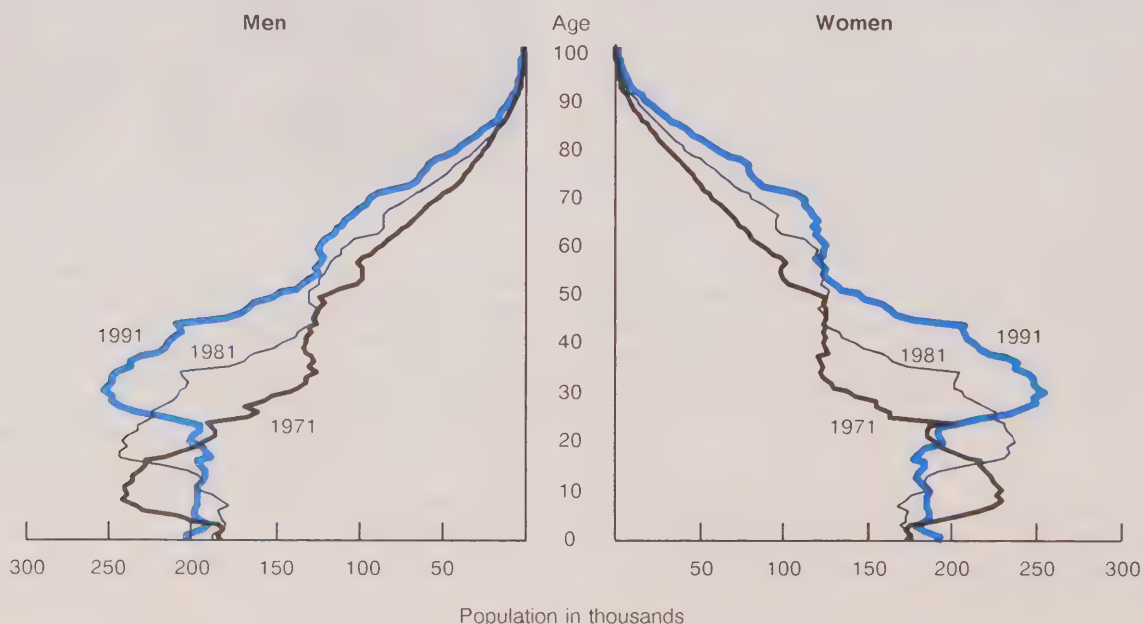
That is a very efficient way for an organization to respond to the age structure seen in this type of workforce. The expectation of employees is to have a linear career path, with a gradual move from the entry level to the top. The dominant culture of the organization focuses on promotion, and the higher you are on the structure, the more power you have over those beneath you. In

that world, specialization works extremely well because you move up within your speciality. You'll have two occupations: a line-function occupation like an engineer, an accountant, or a corrections officer, followed by a managerial occupation.

Now, over the first half of the eighties, the tail-end of the baby boom started entering the labour force, and labour force growth began to decline dramatically. For the first time in our history, we had fewer younger workers than older workers. All of a sudden, the labour force population pyramid started to look more like a barrel (Chart A). Organizations that maintained a tall pyramidal structure found that it wasn't working. They had too many employees in their late thirties and forties, and not enough entry-level people. So what did they do? The dumb organizations started to fire employees in their forties, because there weren't enough middle and upper management positions to

Chart A

Baby boomers have significantly altered Canada's demographic makeup.



Source: Demography Division

accommodate all these baby boomers – we've seen a lot of that over the last four or five years. And the jobs at the bottom of the pyramid still need to be done; so you get a 39 year-old to do a 19 year-old's job. This is not great for morale. This is not the way to manage the labour force. The only way you can fit a rectangle up a triangle is to flatten the triangle.

Senior executives have gradually begun to understand that the old corporate structures aren't working and that they had better flatten them. What does a flattened corporate structure mean? It means getting rid of all those levels, going from maybe 20 levels to 5. Each occupational level becomes much broader. You bring the peak closer to everybody and you give your employees much more opportunity to move around. This means that the career path has to change. You can no longer expect to be linearly promoted to the top; now you've got to have a spiral career path. You've got to mix lateral with promotional moves. This means that the age of the specialist is going, and the age of the generalist is re-emerging. The specialist can do only one occupation, whereas lateral moves often are associated with

changes in occupation and in the sort of skills needed (Table).

The age of the specialist is going, and the age of the generalist is re-emerging.

But flattening the corporate structure alone isn't good enough, because the moment you do that, your employees need constant re-education and retraining in order to facilitate the change in their occupations. Whether you're moving from nursing to computer programming, or sales to marketing, you need re-education and retraining. And unless senior executives are willing to take the responsibility for increasing their re-education and retraining budget, the flattened corporate structure will not work. What we've been seeing, especially in this time of recession, is that the smart organizations are flattening their corporate structures, but unfortunately, they're gutting their re-education and retraining budgets.

Table
Career paths and associated characteristics

Career path	Direction of job movement	Number of occupations	Duration in occupation	Organizational structure	Reward systems
Steady state ¹	none	one	life	rectangular	tenure/ fringe benefits
Linear ²	upward	two	10+ years	tall pyramid	promotion/ power
Spiral ³	lateral and upward	five(?)	5-10 years	flat pyramid	re-education/ retraining
Transitory	lateral	many	2-4 years	temporary teams	variety/ time off

Source: Adapted from Foot and Venne (1990)

¹ Having the same occupation for life (e.g., minister, doctor, lawyer)

² The most common career path in North America

³ Associated with occupational flexibility and lifelong learning

Q. *How can an employer reward deserving employees or maintain the productivity and morale of ordinary workers in an environment where promotional opportunities are generally unavailable?*

A. Invest a lot in employee re-education and retraining and have a human resource planning profile that asks employees what other department they might like to work in some way down the road. If an employee has an engineering degree, it doesn't mean he or she can't work in a finance department. Give that person two or three courses to prepare for that move later on.

In my world, you should get extra pay for lateral moves if your productivity goes up. This means that salary has little relation to where you are in the hierarchy. Someone who has moved laterally a number of times may be making more than the person who's just moved up one level. The link of salary to position goes out the window. That's what a flattened corporate structure is all about. But you don't automatically get a salary increase for lateral moves. Only if you deserve it.

**You should get extra pay
for lateral moves if your
productivity goes up.
This means that salary
has little relation to
where you are in the
hierarchy.**

There is quite a bit of evidence out in the marketplace that this arrangement works extremely well. People who move laterally to another department don't carry any burdens or past history with them. All of a sudden, new ideas come rushing up to the top. They're already trained to be managers and they can objectively sort through new ideas. For example, I have heard of one

particular experience where, for 40 years, trucks – loading and unloading – crossed one another through two gates. They put an MBA in charge of the engineering division who said, "I know nothing about engineering; I'm willing to take any advice." The lowest-paid guy directing the trucks in the loading yard said, "If you moved the position of one of these gates, those trucks wouldn't have to cross and we'd save minutes a day." Well they didn't – they saved hours a day! Productivity in that division went up tremendously. Just because they moved a gate. That's because the new person at the top had no commitment to the past policies of that division. And admitted not knowing anything.

Q. *What kind of career path can a typical university graduate today expect to follow in his or her lifetime?*

A. University students graduating today are part of the baby bust generation. They've had no difficulty getting part-time jobs at McDonalds or babysitting jobs on Saturday night. These people are used to earning money. There's 20-odd percent fewer of them around than there were baby boomers at that age. So, in some sense, the new graduate today is actually a scarce commodity. But it's not showing up yet, because we're still in this recession. [Editor's note: This interview took place in February 1994.]

What kind of career path can they typically expect to have? As the nineties unfold, the flattened corporate structure will become the common organizational structure in North America, forced by the baby boom. That means the spiral career path is going to dominate over the linear career path. So the new university graduate today had better learn a lot of good generic skills that can be used in a number of different occupations: good communications skills – both oral and written – good interpersonal skills, the ability to work with other people, good computer skills, good analytical skills, and the ability

to think. These are skills that can be taken into any occupation. I don't think it really matters what occupation they train for. They need to train for an occupation to gain entrance into the workforce, because it's very hard to get that entry-level position; but having got that entrance, they shouldn't expect to stay in that occupation for more than 5 to 10 years.

Q. *One way of dealing with high unemployment is to reduce the work week to enable more people to have jobs. But this approach reduces people's incomes as well as their pensions and other benefits. Is there a way around this problem?*

A. Certainly. For a number of years I've been saying we need a much more flexible workforce. I've thought for quite a long time how stupid it is that we go to school full time, and then we work full time and then we exit the labour force full time. Why shouldn't we gradually ease into the labour force by going to school and having a job part time, and gradually ease out of the labour force by working five days a week, then four days, and so on, down to zero?

As the nineties unfold, the flattened corporate structure will become the common organizational structure in North America, forced by the baby boom.

We have, over the seventies and eighties, talked about things like job sharing, which has never got off the ground. And my intuition is, the reason these things have never got off the ground is because senior

management doesn't like its workers having flexibility; it leads to all sorts of "complications" in calculating UI contributions, pension contributions and all the rest of it. It's much easier if people work full time. Besides, if they don't work full time, the sinister implication is that they're not committed to a career.

There are a lot of overworked people now in their mid-forties to early fifties, who have their mortgages largely paid off, who might willingly work four days a week for 80% salary. Or three days a week for 60% salary. Or nine months a year for 75% salary. Management saves huge bucks by doing this, because it's the highest-paid workers who are most likely to take advantage of this opportunity. Furthermore, half of a senior manager's salary pays the full salary of a new, young labour market entrant.

Now, you don't want to deal with high unemployment by reducing the work week through legislation to enable more people to have jobs. This often forces those who can least afford to work reduced hours to share the burden of high unemployment. It should be a voluntary program so that those who can most afford it or most desire it can participate. The employer may require you to sign, say, a three-year contract. It is not always easy to just flip in and out – one year on, one year off – because that can create management planning problems.

Q. *How would this affect pensions?*

A. Both parties should make full pension contributions. The employer is already saving a huge amount of money. The organization is also getting young, innovative ideas from new entry-level people who are now being recruited, and having the older employees around to transfer their knowledge and skills to those people. Everybody wins.

And let's stop arguing about how to calculate fringe benefits. Given human ingenuity, there shouldn't be any difficulty in working this out. All we need to do is negotiate a contract: "You want to be on 80% salary, then let's sit down and talk about how we manage the other things." Maybe the employee still has to pay full Unemployment Insurance and so does the corporation. That's part of the agreement that gets worked out.

It's often a brilliant solution from the employer's point of view. When people work less time, they tend to be more productive in the time they do work. But if they are working, say, three days a week, you can't expect them to do five days' worth of work. There are many people now working five days a week who are being expected to do seven days a week of work. They would welcome this new voluntary program and it would create jobs for new labour market entrants and the unemployed – not to mention new opportunities for those already employed.

Q. *What types of private sector solutions would you endorse for easing the strain on the public pension system?*

A. If I can believe my actuarial friends, all the pension problems would be solved if the retirement age were raised from age 65 to 67. In the U.S. they've already legislated rises in the retirement age, starting in the year 2000, of one month for every year. So you have to be 65 and one month in 2001, 65 and two months in the year 2002, and so on. A similar scheme could be adopted for Canada.

Q. *Isn't this at odds with the trend toward early retirement?*

A. Yes. But not at odds with my view of the world, where I think that we ought to be encouraging people to work four days a week

from age 55 to 60, three days a week from 60 to 65 and then continue to work, but two days a week from 65 to 70, and one day a week from 70 to 75. As for accessibility to the pension, they get one-fifth of their pension at 55, two-fifths at 60, three-fifths at 65, four-fifths at 70 and a full pension at 75. WE NEED SOME NEW THINKING HERE.

I'm much more in favour of more flexible work arrangements that allow people to ease gradually into retirement so they can create jobs for younger people, yet still be gainfully occupied into their late sixties and early seventies, if they so choose.

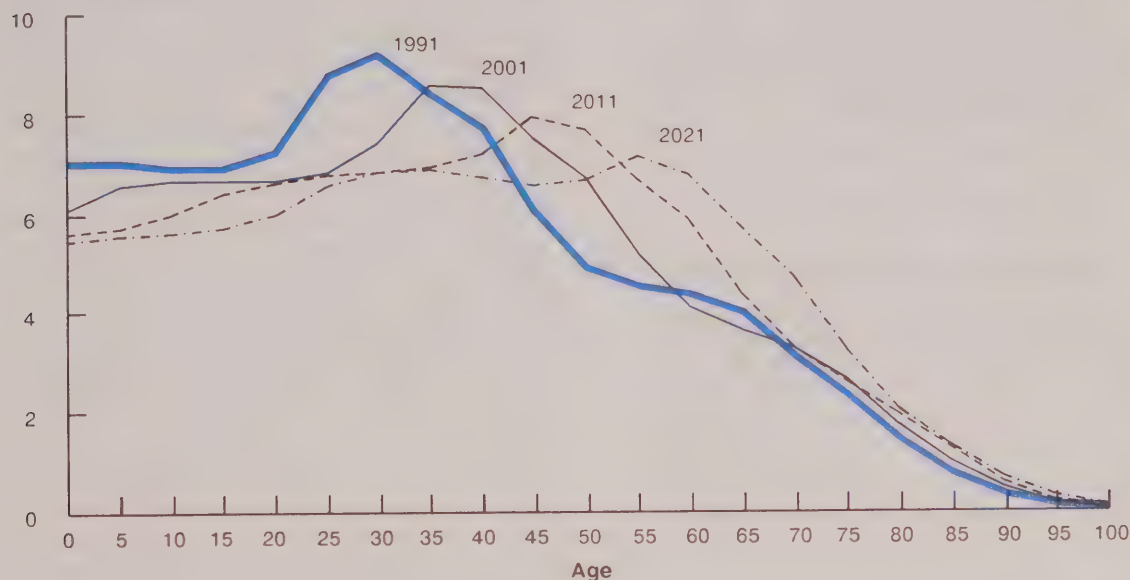
I'm in favour of maintaining mandatory retirement to create new jobs for our baby boomers, and gradually raising the mandatory retirement age from 65 to 67 to help alleviate our pension problems over the next 20 years. But I'm much more in favour of more flexible work arrangements that allow people to ease gradually into retirement so they can create jobs for younger people, yet still be gainfully occupied into their late sixties and early seventies, if they so choose.

Q. *You have talked extensively about consumer expenditures being dramatically affected by the changing needs and interests of aging baby boomers. What directions do you foresee the demand for personal goods and services taking in the next two decades?*

Chart B

Baby boomers will continue to dominate Canada's population structure well into the next century.

% of total population



Source: Demography Division

Note: Age is shown in five-year increments: 0 indicates the proportion of people aged 0-4; 5 is the proportion aged 5-9, etc. The projections for the years 2001, 2011 and 2021 assume immigration levels of 250,000 a year and the fertility rate remaining at the 1991 level.

A. The big-growth industries are going to be for products and services consumed by people in their forties – like their need for eye glasses. They're much more likely to go walking than running – so walking shoes rather than running shoes. They're much more likely to go to museums than tennis clubs, or to buy skin care products than cosmetics.

People in their forties are much more likely to go on an up-market holiday. By up-market I don't necessarily mean Club Med. I

mean something that offers comfortable accommodation and good food at night, even though during the day they might climb the edge of a mountain. Most of the travel industry doesn't understand that. If these people go on package tours, they don't want to be with 30 other people. Maybe with 6 or 8 other people who have some of the same values and interests – yes, it will cost more but they will be ready to pay for this value-added service.

We're gradually maturing from a manufacturing economy to a service economy. People are much more likely to need services in their forties; you know, financial planning services, travel services, health-care services.

Also, most of us have bought our televisions and our refrigerators and all our manufactured goods. The demand now is a replacement demand. Growth in manufacturing is over. That's why we're gradually maturing from a manufacturing economy to a service economy. People are much more likely to need services in their forties; you know, financial planning services, travel services, health-care services. These are the sorts of trends emerging today.

Q. *Are Statistics Canada's surveys and other data sources comprehensive enough for your work, or are there some serious deficiencies you would like to see addressed?*

A. I think Stats Can is probably one of the best, certainly one of the top two or three statistical-gathering agencies in the entire world. The quality of the information coming out of Stats Can has been a joy to work with throughout the 20-odd years that I have been doing research in this country.

I am also conscious of the fact that over the last decade Statistics Canada has been downsized 20 to 25 percent without hugely cutting back on important data gathering, except perhaps the Job Vacancy Survey. There has been a rather dramatic increase in productivity, and that's impressive. So a big A+ to Statistics Canada for the quality of its information, the timeliness of its

information and its ability to maintain much of it in a difficult economic environment.

My biggest complaint with Statistics Canada is its inaccessibility. In a world where quality and service matter, Statistics Canada gets a straight A on quality, but probably gets a D on service. If I want information, I don't have time to make five telephone calls to get to the right person who can explain the data to me. I don't have time to get busy signals. If the telephone is answered, the first thing I hear is, "We're on a cost-recovery basis now. Unless we can squeeze a hundred or, better, a thousand dollars out of you, we're not interested in having you on the phone. Good bye!"

This is totally unacceptable. The university doesn't have enough money to buy the latest data for teaching and research purposes, and Statistics Canada would never give it away, not even for teaching. I'm not going to spend my time putting in applications for grant money to pay Statistics Canada for a database so I can do my job. Instead, I'll adapt. I don't even have my students look at Statistics Canada publications in their courses any more – I used to have them buy the books, but they're too expensive now. Access to raw data without access to related publications leads to uninformed users in my judgement. Is this what you want?

Q. *Doesn't the library have information?*

A. It's not quality and service to have somebody waste time going down to the library where the book may or may not be in stock and may or may not be on the bookshelf.

Q. *Aren't students supposed to use libraries?*

A. Students are supposed to use libraries but what happens when they're 35 year-olds and also maintaining a job and a family as well? More and more of our students are in that world. Time is important to them. And Statistics Canada does not value people's time. That is unacceptable in today's society.

Q. *What do you think we should do?*

A. I shouldn't have to deal with busy signals. There should be answering machines available all the time. I should be able to download any information I need instantly off the telephone, and if there's a charge it should be \$3.50, billed directly to my charge card. Not \$1,000 because you're on cost recovery and I have to pay for your time to answer the phone. Let me get into the

system. Stop making me go through people. Just provide accessible user support when necessary.

In spite of these shortcomings, however, I will say that I was born in England, brought up in Australia, educated in the U.S., and have worked in Canada, and of those four countries, all of which are good countries, I'd much rather work with data here.

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The Chief Statistician replies

First, I would like to thank Professor Foot for his complimentary remarks regarding the quality of data produced by Statistics Canada, and the stature it enjoys in the international statistical community. However, his remarks regarding accessibility and service are disappointing, since the agency prides itself on providing not only good quality data, but also good quality service to the public.

It is true that the agency operates certain aspects of its dissemination program on a cost-recovery basis. It is our policy that those who directly benefit from our products or services should bear their cost, rather than having them subsidized by the taxpayer at large. Thus, clients wishing to have a personal copy of a publication or those requesting special tabulations are asked to

pay for those services. On the other hand, most of the agency's dissemination program is provided to the public free of charge through a variety of means. First, there are some 700 libraries which, under the Depository Services Program, receive Statistics Canada publications at no cost. Located throughout the country, they serve as an efficient means of ensuring that all Canadians have access to the agency's information. Second, the agency's Regional Reference Centres respond to over half a million inquiries annually, over three-quarters of which are answered at no charge. Third, but equally important, is the agency's policy of providing all of its information free of charge to the media, which in turn inform the public of national economic and social trends.

Professor Foot expresses some concern about the impact of Statistics Canada's policies on the education sector. I wish to emphasize that Statistics Canada values the education sector very highly: we want to contribute to the education of our citizenry and, frankly, students are the next generation of Statistics Canada clients. In fact, we have developed several programs directly for schools and universities. For example, we provide substantial discounts on all publications purchased by educational institutions – 30% off current publications and 70% off out-of-date publications. (Students don't always need the most recent data. As a learning tool, Labour Force Survey data for May 1994 are just as effective as data for June 1994; similarly, third-quarter gross domestic product data are just as good as fourth-quarter figures.) In addition, we offer a 50% discount on CD-ROM and diskette products.

Our electronic products have long been available to the education sector; for years, students have been using the University/ CANSIM Time Series Database, an on-line service provided to universities for \$995 per year. We recently developed the highly successful E-STAT product for schools. E-STAT combines easy-to-use mapping and charting software with census and time series data. The product was developed to promote students' use of Canadian data as well as their knowledge of Canadian socio-economic trends. To this end, E-STAT's price is subsidized. The agency has also collaborated with the education faculties of several universities to develop related curriculum material that teachers may easily use in their classrooms. The E-STAT project has proven very popular. Indeed, we have negotiated licences with five provinces; now all schools in those jurisdictions have access to the package. Licences will be pursued in the other provinces as well.

Professor Foot wonders why he does not have direct on-line access to our statistical databases. I am pleased to inform *Perspectives* readers that beginning this autumn, we are introducing the STATSCAN ON-LINE direct data retrieval system. Participants in the recent pilot test considered the system state-of-the-art and described the retrieval software as very user-friendly. Given this encouraging feedback, we are confident it will meet the requirements of users like Professor Foot. ON-LINE now carries *The Daily* and international trade data; we will soon add CANSIM and census data. Eventually, all agency data will be available ON-LINE.

The agency is very sensitive to the importance of providing quality service to its clientele. Indeed, this is why, several years ago, we instituted an annual survey of the quality of service offered by our Regional Reference Centres. This survey focuses on the reliability of the information provided, courtesy of the staff, promptness of service, and whether clients were served in the language of their choice. While the results of these surveys have been consistently very positive, we are always seeking to improve the way we serve the public.

In summary, I am proud that the general public has a high opinion of the relevance and reliability of Statistics Canada's information. Likewise, we pride ourselves on the quality of service provided to Canadians, a principle that will continue to guide our actions as we fulfil our mandate as Canada's national statistical agency.

Ivan P. Fellegi
Chief Statistician of Canada

Baby boom women

Diane Galarneau

Baby boom women have experienced a very different social and economic climate than women of previous generations. Because of changes in society's attitudes and values, they stayed in school longer, married later, and had fewer children. And over the last three decades, they entered the labour force in unprecedented numbers.

However, because the baby boom spanned two decades, those born in the early years of the period were adults when the last boomers were infants. As a result, baby boom women joined the labour force at different times. The different rates of economic growth since the 1960s meant that at each stage of their working lives early boomers experienced different economic conditions than did late boomers. This, in turn, affected their employment and earnings.

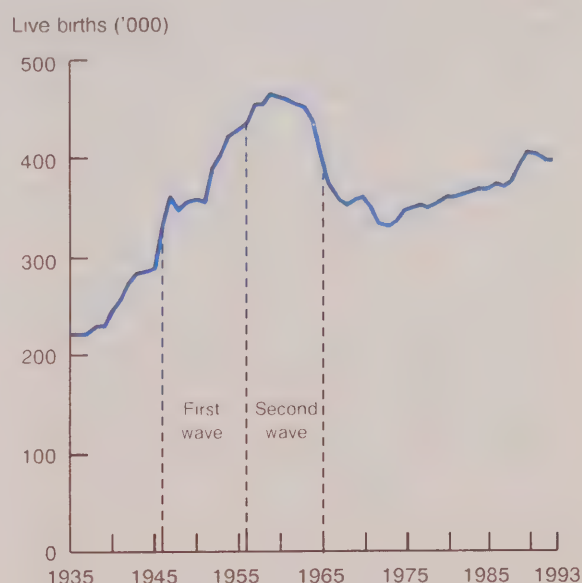
What is the baby boom?

The baby boom is the increase in births that occurred after World War II (Chart A). While no consensus exists on the exact timing of the phenomenon, for ease of analysis, the period from 1946 to 1965 is a close approximation. This article divides baby boom women into two "waves": the first consists of those born from 1946 to 1955, and the second, those born from 1956 to 1965.

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Chart A

At the peak of the baby boom, annual births topped 460,000.



Source: Canadian Centre for Health Information

Note: Excludes Newfoundland from 1935 to 1985; and Yukon and Northwest Territories from 1935 to 1955.

The second wave was considerably larger than the first. For instance, at ages 16 to 25, typically the age range when people first enter the labour market (see *Data source and definitions*), second-wave women totalled 2.3 million. By contrast, first-wave

women had numbered 1.9 million. As they advanced to the next age range, both groups were augmented by immigrants, though the numerical gap remained. At ages 26 to 35, second-wave women totalled almost 2.5 million, compared with 2.1 million for the first wave. Consequently, second-wave women encountered more competition in the labour force, both from their peers and from the first wave.

Employment

Labour force entry and the economy

In the 1960s, the first wave of baby boom women began to enter the labour market. During this decade, Canada was undergoing economic expansion. Gross domestic product (GDP) growth was high – an annual average of 5.2% – while unemployment and inflation were low, averaging 5.0% and 2.9%, respectively. At the beginning of the 1960s, relatively few women were in the labour force (29% in 1961).¹ However, by 1971, women's overall labour force participation had risen to 39%. The rate among the first wave of baby boom women, who were then aged 16 to 25, was even higher at 54%.

The labour market entry of second-wave women in the 1970s coincided with the start of an era of more moderate economic growth. Annual increases in GDP remained high in the early part of the decade, averaging 5.1%, but a recession in 1974 and 1975 was followed by a lower average annual growth rate of 4.6% from 1976 to 1979. Inflation rose to an annual average of around 8% in the latter half of the 1970s, and unemployment increased from 5.9% in the first half of the decade to 7.6% in the second.

Despite the deteriorating job market, by 1981, 70% of second-wave baby boom women, then aged 16 to 25, were in the labour force, a considerable jump from the figure for the first wave at the same age (54%) (Chart B). And while the second wave's unemployment rate was also higher than

Data source and definitions

This article is adapted from *Female Baby Boomers: A Generation at Work* (Catalogue 96-315E), one of the "Focus on Canada" series of publications, which provide an overview of the population through analysis of the data collected in the 1991 Census. *Female Baby Boomers: A Generation at Work* compares women born during the baby boom with those born before and after.

This article, by contrast, examines the two "waves" of baby boom women: those born from 1946 to 1955 and those born from 1956 to 1965. It compares their characteristics at the same age, but in different years.

Although labour force statistics usually include 15 year-olds, the use of census data meant that analysis of the two waves of baby boom women had to be based on those aged 16 and over. In the census year 1971, the youngest members of the first wave, born in 1955, were 16 years old. Similarly, the youngest members of the second wave, born in 1965, were 16 in 1981. As well, 1971 data are not presented for the second wave, who were then aged 6 to 15.

Employment income, or earnings, is total income received as wages and salaries, net income from unincorporated non-farm business and/or professional practice and net farm self-employment income.

Full-time workers worked 30 hours or more a week (at all jobs); **part-time workers**, less than 30 hours per week.

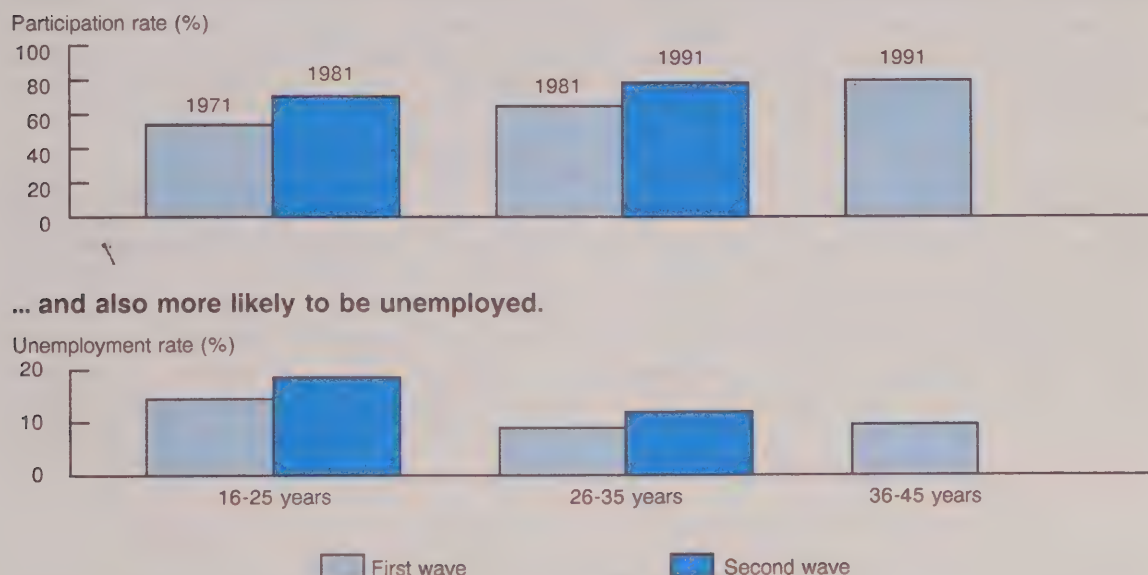
Full-year workers worked 49 or more weeks a year; **part-year workers**, less than 49 weeks.

that of the first at the same age, so was the overall rate of unemployment. In 1981, the unemployment rate of second-wave women was 18.4%, compared with 14.3% for the first in 1971. The unemployment figures for all women were 8.3% in 1981 and 6.6% in 1971.

The 1980s began with the 1981-82 recession. GDP actually declined (-3.2%) in 1982 and averaged only 3.3% per year for the decade. The annual rate of inflation reached 12.4% in 1981 and 10.9% in 1982, but then fell below 6% for the rest of the 1980s. Unemployment, however, rose to almost 12% in 1983 and remained above 10% until 1986.

Chart B

At every age, second-wave baby boom women were more likely to be in the labour force ...



Source: Census of Canada

Nevertheless, by 1991, when second-wave women were aged 26 to 35, their labour force participation rate was 78%. Again, this was much higher than the figure for first-wave women at that age (65%). Furthermore, at these ages 50% of employed second-wave women had full-time, full-year jobs; the comparable proportion for the first wave in 1981 had been 45%.

Later marriage ... fewer children

Trends in family and marital status also distinguished baby boom women from the previous generation. For instance, increasingly, they were postponing marriage.² At ages 26 to 35, 20% of second-wave women had never married, compared with 14% of the first wave and 11% of pre-boom women (born from 1936 to 1945) at the same age.

Similarly, female baby boomers were waiting longer to start families. At ages 26

to 35, the proportion with no children was 38% for the second wave and 30% for the first. By contrast, in this age range only 22% of pre-boomers had no children. And those baby boomers who did have children had relatively few. Just 13% of second-wave women aged 26 to 35 had three or more children, compared with 16% for the first wave, and 34% for pre-boomers.

At the same time, the labour force participation rate of married women was rising sharply. In 1991, when the second wave was aged 26 to 35, the disparity between the participation rates of those who were married and those who were single was 8 percentage points: 77% versus 85%. In 1981, the difference had been 24 points for the first wave, while in 1971, 43 points separated the participation rates of married and single pre-boom women.

As well, the presence and age of children appeared to have a diminishing impact on women's labour force participation. At ages 26 to 35, the participation rate of second-wave women with at least one preschool child at home was 68%, compared with 50% for the first wave, and 29% for pre-boomers.

More education

Baby boom women had more formal education than the previous generation. Furthermore, the level of attainment of the second wave surpassed that of the first. At ages 26 to 35, 16% of second-wave women were university graduates (Table 1). The corresponding figure for the first wave was a somewhat

lower 13%, while at the same ages, just 5% of pre-boom women held degrees.

Not only was the level of education of female baby boomers rising, but more of them were earning degrees in traditionally male-dominated fields such as business, law, medicine, and mathematics (Stout, 1992).

Expanding range of jobs

The rise in educational attainment and the shift toward traditionally male fields were reflected in the occupational distribution of baby boom women (Table 2).³ As each wave aged and upgraded its education, the proportions in managerial and male-dominated professional positions increased. And second-wave women were considerably more likely than the first wave to hold such occupations.

Table 1
Distribution and labour force participation of first- and second-wave female baby boomers, by selected characteristics

	Ages 16 to 25				Ages 26 to 35			
	Distribution		Participation rate		Distribution		Participation rate	
	First wave in 1971	Second wave in 1981	First wave in 1971	Second wave in 1981	First wave in 1981	Second wave in 1991	First wave in 1981	Second wave in 1991
	%							
Total	100	100	54	70	100	100	65	78
Education								
Less than Grade 9	11	4	36	43	9	4	44	50
Grades 9 to 13	63	60	50	63	42	40	59	72
Some or completed postsecondary	23	31	70	82	36	41	72	83
University degree	3	5	78	88	13	16	82	89
Marital status								
Never-married	62	65	57	70	14	20	85	85
Married*	36	33	48	68	78	72	61	77
Other	2	2	60	70	9	8	75	76
Children at home								
None	77	83	60	75	30	38	89	91
At least one	23	17	30	46	70	62	55	71
One	13	11	36	53	20	21	66	78
Two	7	5	23	38	33	28	54	71
Three or more	2	1	17	28	16	13	44	60
At least one preschooler	22	17	30	45	46	43	50	68

Source: Census of Canada

* Includes common-law.

Table 2
Occupations of first- and second-wave female baby boomers

	Ages 16 to 25		Ages 26 to 35	
	First wave in 1971	Second wave in 1981	First wave in 1981	Second wave in 1991
	%			
All occupations	100	100	100	100
Managerial and administrative	1	2	6	9
Natural sciences, engineering, social sciences, religion and the arts	3	5	6	8
Teaching	6	2	9	6
Health care	8	6	11	9
Clerical	37	39	35	31
Sales	7	10	7	8
Services	15	19	11	14
Agriculture	2	2	2	2
Product fabricating	4	4	4	3
Other*	5	6	5	5
Not classified/not reported	10	4	3	5

Source: *Census of Canada*

* Includes fishing, trapping, forestry, mining and quarrying, processing and machining, construction, transport equipment operating, material handling, and other crafts and equipment operating.

For example, at ages 26 to 35, managerial occupations accounted for 9% of second-wave women, compared with 6% of the first wave at the same age. Trends were similar in engineering, natural sciences, social sciences, and the arts.

On the other hand, teaching and health accounted for larger shares of first- than of second-wave women. At ages 26 to 35, 9% of employed first-wave women versus 6% of the second wave were in teaching. The figures for health were 11% and 9%, respectively.

The leading occupational category for all baby boom women was clerical, but at older ages their concentration in such occupations diminished. This was particularly noticeable among the second wave: at ages 16 to 25, 39% were in clerical occupations; by ages 26 to 35, the figure had dropped to 31%.

Second-wave women were more likely than the first to be in services. In 1991, at ages 26 to 35, 14% of employed second-wave

women were in service occupations, whereas the proportion had been 11% for the first wave in 1981. To some extent, these variations were attributable to the changing requirements of the economy, notably the shift of employment from goods-producing to service industries.

Employment income

The earnings of baby boom women and the pace at which they increased were affected by the economic conditions that prevailed when these women entered the workforce and as their careers advanced.⁴

Varying rates of change

In 1980,⁵ the year before the 1981-82 recession, second-wave women with full-time, full-year jobs were earning more than the first wave had earned at the same age in 1970: \$19,800 versus \$16,900 (constant 1990 dollars) (Table 3).

Table 3
Employment income of first- and second-wave female baby boomers

	Ages 16 to 25		Ages 26 to 35	
	First wave in 1970	Second wave in 1980	First wave in 1980	Second wave in 1990
Full-time, full-year workers*				
Women's employment income (1990 \$)	16,900	19,800	26,200	25,900
	%			
Female/male employment income ratio	76	77	71	75
Women's share of family employment income**	34	34	33	36

Source: Census of Canada

* Employed 30 or more hours per week, 49 or more weeks per year

** Includes only women who were married or in common-law unions.

The next 10 years were coloured by the 1981-82 recession and slower economic growth. This period brought a rise in employment income of 31% for the second wave, whereas that of the first wave had increased 55% during the 1970s. As a result, in 1990 second-wave women were earning slightly less than the first wave had when they were in this age range: \$25,900 versus \$26,200 in 1980.

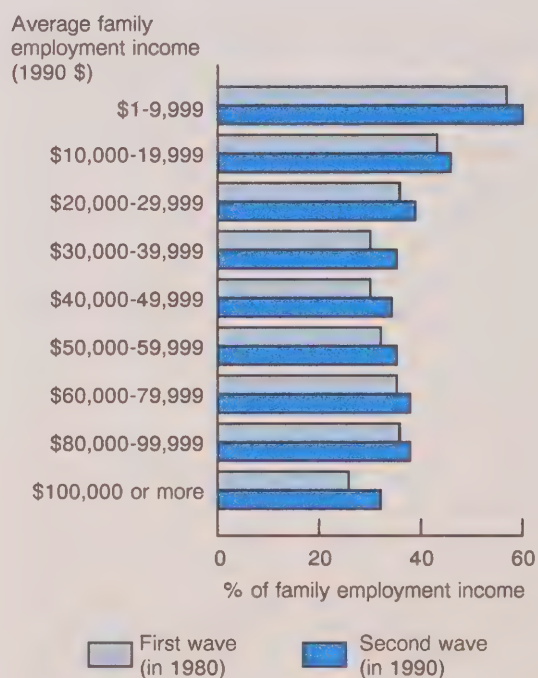
Less than men

At ages 16 to 25, neither women nor men are likely to have much work experience, and because many have not settled into a stable job, their earnings are fairly similar. But as their careers proceed, men's employment income tends to rise more rapidly than women's. This was true for baby boom women, although there was some narrowing of the gap.

The female/male employment income ratio for full-time, full-year workers was relatively high for the first and second waves when they were aged 16 to 25 (76% and 77%, respectively).⁸ By ages 26 to 35, the gap had widened, although less so for the second wave: the ratio was 75% for the second wave, compared with 71% for the first.

Chart C

At ages 26 to 35, second-wave baby boom women contributed more to family employment income.



Source: Census of Canada

Women contributing more

The massive influx of baby boom women into the labour market has made dual-earner families the majority. Thus, it is not surprising that women's overall share of family employment income⁷ has increased. For example, at ages 26 to 35, second-wave women were contributing 36% of family income, up from 33% for the first wave. As well, women's share increased at every income level, even at the top (\$100,000 or more), where it rose from 26% to 32% (Chart C).

Summary

For the most part, trends that emerged among first-wave baby boom women

persisted and intensified among the second wave: their educational attainment was higher; they waited longer before entering a relationship and having children; and they had fewer children. Moreover, the labour force participation rate of second-wave women was higher than that of the first wave at the same age, regardless of educational attainment, marital status, or number and age of children, and despite the ups and downs of economic conditions. Nonetheless, second-wave women were more likely than their first-wave counterparts to be unemployed. In addition, at ages 26 to 35, second-wave women employed full time year round earned slightly less than first-wave women had at the same ages. □

Notes

¹ The participation rate is the proportion of the population 16 years and over that is either employed or unemployed. Figures for 1961 are unpublished data from Statistics Canada's Labour Force Survey.

² Married includes common-law.

³ Occupation data refer only to employed women.

⁴ Of course, the earnings of baby boom women also depended on factors such as education, occupation, industry, and opportunities for promotion.

⁵ Because the census collects income data for the preceding year, earnings figures for first- and second-wave women pertain to 1970, 1980 and 1990.

⁶ A value of 100% would indicate absolute equality; values less than 100%, that women's employment income is lower. These indices cannot be used as a measure of salary equity between men and women, as they do not take account of factors such as occupation, industry, and work experience.

⁷ This analysis pertains only to women who were married or in common-law unions. The figures refer to the proportion of average family employment income that was contributed by these women.

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Adults living solo

Susan Crompton

As the United Nation's Year of the Family draws to a close, one should not forget the almost one million "mid-life" adults (aged 30 to 54) living alone. They are the contemporaries of the women and men now raising children, and account for almost one in six households headed by people aged 30 to 54. This age group makes up 36% of one-person households, matching the proportion of the elderly living alone. However, because family status dictates most analysis of household data, and because the situation of seniors tends to dominate discussions about living alone, mid-life solos drop from sight.

In the past decade, the number of mid-life solos has almost doubled, while that of adults the same age living in larger households has risen by less than one-third. It would seem that this growth of solo households is not principally an economic phenomenon, since the proportion of adults living alone increased steadily during a time when real incomes did not improve.¹ Moreover, the basic demographic profile of adults who live by themselves (for example, their marital status) did not change much over the period. Perhaps, then, the most important, and least tangible, reason for the increase in solo living is that attitudes, habits and expectations have changed.

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This article presents a brief portrait of solo householders aged 30 to 54 in comparison with other Canadians the same age, and then sketches some of the major differences among solos themselves. Why choose this particular age group for the study? Why not everyone aged 25 to 64? Thirty to 54 year-olds are the people whose solo status is least likely to change. They are somewhat older than the average age at which people first marry. At the same time, they are too young for their ranks to be heavily populated by people whose solo status stems from widowhood.²

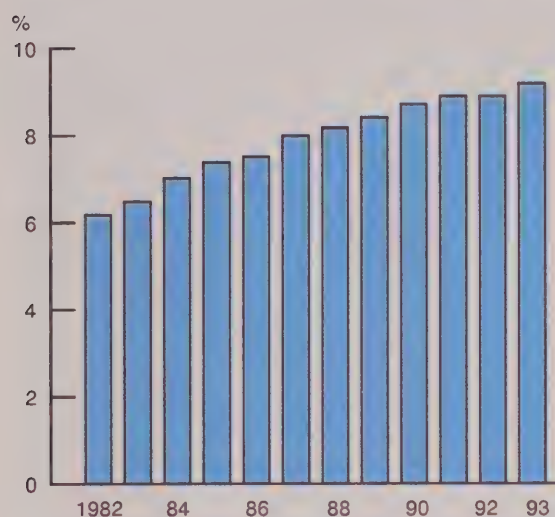
Proportion of mid-life adults living alone has risen

Over the past decade, the proportion of 30 to 54 year-olds living alone has risen steadily. In 1982, 6.2% of people in this age group (469,000) lived alone; by 1993, the proportion was 9.2% (928,000) (Chart A). The greatest increase was among men, 10.9% of whom lived alone in 1993 compared with 6.9% in 1982; the corresponding figures for women were 7.5% and 5.5%.

Given rising divorce rates, one might think that the accelerated creation of one-person households was caused in part by the increase in marriage breakdowns. But between 1982 and 1993 there were no major differences in the marital status of people who lived alone; in fact, the proportion of solos who had never married rose slightly from 56% to 58%. The only other notable

Chart A

The proportion of 30 to 54 year-olds living alone rose steadily in the 1980s and early 1990s.



Source: Labour Force Survey

change in the characteristics of the solo population was the increase in the proportion of men, from 56% to 59%. Both these shifts were caused by baby boomers aged 30 to 44, whose share of solos rose from 66% to 68% (Table 1).

Solos were no younger than their counterparts in larger households, 68% of whom were also baby boomers. However, a number of other characteristics set solos apart from 30 to 54 year-olds living in larger households. For example, in 1993 solo men outnumbered women, at 59% to 41%, which was not the case for other mid-life adults, 49% of whom were men. Solos also tended to have more formal education: 23% had a university degree, compared with 16% of their non-solo contemporaries.

Table 1

Distribution of solo householders aged 30 to 54, selected characteristics, 1982 and 1993

	1982	1993
Total ('000)	469	928
	%	
Aged 30-54		
Both sexes	100	100
Never-married	56	58
Divorced/separated	34	34
Other*	10	8
Men	56	59
Never-married	32	35
Divorced/separated	19	20
Other*	4	4
Women	44	41
Never-married	24	23
Divorced/separated	15	14
Other*	6	4
Aged 30-44		
Both sexes	66	68
Never-married	42	46
Divorced/separated	20	18
Other*	4	4
Men	39	43
Never-married	24	28
Divorced/separated	12	12
Other*	2	3
Women	27	25
Never-married	18	18
Divorced/separated	8	6
Other*	2	1
Aged 45-54		
Both sexes	34	32
Never-married	13	12
Divorced/separated	14	16
Other*	6	4
Men	17	16
Never-married	8	7
Divorced/separated	7	8
Other*	2	1
Women	17	16
Never-married	6	5
Divorced/separated	7	8
Other*	4	3

Source: Labour Force Survey

Note: Estimates may not add to totals due to rounding.

* Other includes widowed and married but spouse absent.

A breed apart?

Overall, three-quarters of all mid-life adults were employed in 1993. However, the employment profiles of men and women tell interesting stories that differ according to their living arrangements. Women living alone were more likely than women in larger households to be working – 76% versus 68%. On the other hand, solo men were less likely than their non-solo counterparts to be employed – 74% compared with 84% (Chart B). Furthermore, the employment rates of solo women differed considerably depending on their marital status, with those who had never married recording a much higher rate (82%) than those who were separated/divorced (69%) or the few who were widowed (58%).

By contrast, among solo men there was less variation in employment rates by marital status. The rate for those who had never married or who were separated/divorced was 74%, and for the small number who were widowed, 79%.

A high proportion of employed solos held white-collar jobs: 37% of men and 53% of women. In larger households, 33% of employed men and 39% of employed women worked in white-collar occupations (see *Data sources and definitions*).

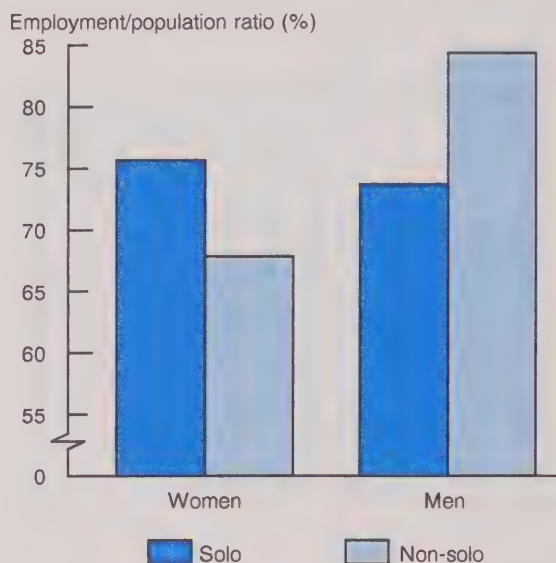
Life in the fast lane?

In 1992, the average annual income of solos aged 30 to 54 was \$30,750, slightly higher than that of non-solo individuals in the same age group (\$29,000). The distribution of individual incomes was similar: 37% of solos had incomes under \$20,000, as did 39% of non-solos; at the other end of the spectrum, only 7% of solos and 8% of non-solos reported incomes exceeding \$60,000.

Earnings – wages and salaries, net income from self-employment – constituted the

Chart B

In 1993, solo women and non-solo men were much more likely to be employed than their counterparts.*



Source: Labour Force Survey

* Aged 30-54.

major source of income for three-quarters of solo householders. (Almost one-fifth of solos depended on government transfers as their major source of income.) Of course, earnings depend on employment status. In 1992, solo householders working full time earned an average \$33,500, about the same as other 30 to 54 year-olds with full-time jobs. Solos working part time fared somewhat better than their counterparts in larger households, earning \$14,250 compared with \$12,000 for non-solos. Meanwhile, solos who did not work had an average income (\$10,500) almost twice as high as non-workers in larger households (Table 2).

Data sources and definitions

This article uses data from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) to describe demographic and labour force trends of the population of individuals aged 30 to 54. It also uses the Household Income, Facilities and Equipment database (HIFE) to focus on some of the major socio-economic characteristics of one-person households – employment status over the course of the year, income and sources of income, and home ownership.

The HIFE database is created by linking data from the Household Facilities and Equipment Survey (HFE) and the Survey of Consumer Finances (SCF) to the Labour Force Survey (LFS). The LFS is the monthly survey of labour market activity and characteristics of Canadian households. The SCF collects data on amounts and sources of income received in the previous calendar year, weeks worked, and whether this work was mostly full-time or part-time. The HFE gathers information such as type of housing, type of heating, cooking equipment, vehicle ownership, kitchen appliances and other household equipment. The SCF and HFE are conducted in the same households as the LFS, so linkages can easily be made.

Definitions

Income: total annual income before taxes reported for the previous calendar year; for example, income data from the 1993 HIFE refer to income received in 1992. Total income includes: wages and salaries; net income from self-employment; government transfer payments (including Federal Child Tax Credit, and for 1991 data, Federal Sales Tax and GST Tax Credits); investments; retirement pensions, superannuation and annuities; other money income (scholarships, bursaries, inheritance, alimony); and military pay and allowances. Total income excludes capital gains and losses.

Earnings: income from wages and salaries and net income from self-employment.

Employed: worked at some time during the year; persons employed full-year worked for 49 to 52 weeks.

Household: a household is a person or group of persons occupying a dwelling. The number of household members refers to the time the survey was conducted and may not apply to the entire reference year; that is, someone living alone at the time the survey was conducted in May 1993 may have been a member of a larger household in 1992.

Employment rate, or employment/population ratio: number of employed persons in a particular group expressed as a percentage of the population of that group.

Worked mostly full time/part time: weekly hours most often worked during the reference year (the same calendar year for which annual income is reported). Full-time work is defined as 30 hours or more usually worked per week; part-time, less than 30 hours per week.

Weeks worked: the number of weeks in the reference year in which the individual did any remunerated work.

Home ownership: a dwelling is "owned" whether or not the mortgage has been fully paid.

White-collar occupations: managerial or administrative and professional (natural sciences, social sciences, teaching, medicine and health, religion, artistic and leisure) occupations.

Solo householders can be grouped into three broad categories based on their employment status: the 75% who worked full time, subdivided into those making \$40,000 or more a year and those making less; the 10% who worked part time; and the 15% who did not work at all (Chart C).

Working full time

In 1992, three-quarters of solo householders (656,000) were full-time workers with average earnings of \$33,500. Men had somewhat higher average earnings than women –

\$34,750 compared with \$32,000. Rather than examine all solo full-time workers as a single group, this section deals separately with those who earned \$40,000 or more and those who earned less, because they are distinguished by much more than money.

Solo full-time workers making \$40,000 and over annually are the only possible candidates for the glamorous creature often portrayed as the mid-life single. But they constituted just over one-third of solos working full-time in 1992; of these higher-earning solos, only a small, and mainly male, minority (8%) made more than \$60,000.

Table 2
Average earnings of adults aged 30 to 54, by household and employment status, 1993

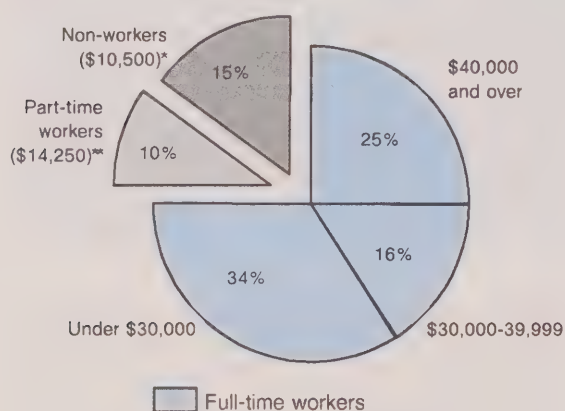
	Both sexes			Men			Women		
	30-54	30-44	45-54	30-54	30-44	45-54	30-54	30-44	45-54
\$									
Type of household									
One-person	26,750	28,250	23,250	28,250	30,000	23,750	24,750	25,750	22,750
Worked full time	33,500	33,750	33,000	34,750	35,500	32,500	32,000	31,250	33,500
Worked part time	14,250	13,750	--	13,250	--	--	15,500	--	--
Did not work*	10,500	9,750	11,500	10,250	10,500	--	11,000	--	12,750
Two-or-more-person	25,750	25,250	27,000	34,750	33,500	37,000	17,250	17,250	17,000
Worked full time	33,250	32,250	35,500	38,250	36,750	41,250	26,000	25,500	26,750
Worked part time	12,000	11,500	12,750	14,000	13,000	16,750	11,500	11,250	12,250
Did not work*	6,000	5,750	6,000	11,500	11,250	12,000	4,250	4,500	4,000

Source: Household Income, Facilities and Equipment database

* Total annual income from all sources

Chart C

Most solo householders aged 30 to 54 worked full time in 1992, but only a minority earned over \$40,000.



Source: Household Income, Facilities and Equipment Survey

* Average total income from all sources

** Average earnings

Over half (58%) the solos in the \$40,000-plus earnings bracket had never married, compared with 62% of solo full-time

workers earning less. This difference in marital status was largely confined to men. The proportion of never-married men among higher-earning solos was low (55% versus 63% for other solo men working full time). However, solo women making \$40,000 or more were slightly more likely to be never-married than other solo women working full-time (63% versus 60%).

Higher-earning solos were somewhat older than other solos working full time: 29% were aged 45 to 54, compared with 26% of those earning less than \$40,000. Their age may partly explain their higher earnings, since older workers are more likely to hold senior positions.

Another probable reason for solos' higher earnings was their educational attainment. Higher-earning solos were better-educated than those earning less: three-quarters had postsecondary qualifications (college or university) compared with less than half of other full-time solo workers. In fact, they were three times more likely to have a university degree (45% as opposed to 14%).

The number of weeks the two groups had worked during the year may also explain part of the difference in earnings, especially

for those full-time solos in white-collar occupations: 98% of higher-earning solos had been employed all year (49 weeks or more), compared with 68% of other full-time workers. Interestingly, solo women earning less than \$40,000 were much more likely than their male counterparts to have worked full year (77% compared with 61%).

Women in both earnings groups were better-educated than their male counterparts. Among higher-earning solos, 86% of women had postsecondary completion compared with 68% of men. The gap was smaller but still marked among those making less than \$40,000: 51% of women had postsecondary completion versus 44% of men.

Solo women's education paid off in the job market, as they were almost twice as likely as men to work in high-level white-collar occupations. Among higher-earning women, 87% worked as professionals and managers or administrators, while 44% of solo women making less than \$40,000 were in such jobs. By contrast, only 53% of solo men in the higher-earning bracket and 24% of other solo men working full time held such positions.

Of course, the long-term value of earnings is conversion into wealth, and for the vast majority of people, their largest asset is the equity they have in their homes. Just over half (53%) of higher-earning solos owned their homes, compared with one-third of other full-time solo workers. However, other solo owners (38%) were more likely than higher-earning owners (31%) to have paid off their mortgages.

Working part time

The smallest group of solo householders – 83,000, or about 10% – worked mostly part time, and reported average annual earnings of just over \$14,250 in 1992.³ There was about \$2,250 difference between men's and women's earnings, with men reporting \$13,250 and women \$15,500.

The proportion of women (51%) among part-time solo workers was higher than that among full-time workers (43%). Part-timers were less likely to be single – 57% had never married, compared with 61% of full-time workers. The majority of part-timers (56%) had not completed any postsecondary education.

Half (51%) of solo part-timers had worked fewer than 49 weeks in 1992, a rate more than double that of full-time workers (22%). Many depended on income from sources other than work, as only two-thirds (65%) cited employment as their major source of income. Understandably, with little earning power most part-timers did not own their homes. Almost three-quarters (74%) of part-timers were tenants, compared with 61% of full-time workers.

Not working

One in seven solo householders – 132,000 or 15% – did not work in 1992. Not surprisingly, government transfer payments were the major source of income for most (83%) of them. This translated into an annual average income of \$10,500.

About half of non-working solos were aged 45 to 54, a considerably higher percentage than of solos who were working, whether full or part time. The non-working group also included a somewhat larger proportion of women (50% compared with 44% among working solos), and a higher percentage of divorced individuals (43% in contrast to 36%). Furthermore, 54% of non-working women were divorced, compared with 31% of men.

Over half the non-working solos (56%) either had not worked in the last five years or had never worked. This was most common among those aged 45 to 54, two-thirds of whom had no recent work experience. The great majority of non-working solo householders (82%) lived in rented homes and a small minority received rent subsidies from the government or relatives.

Summary

The number of adults aged 30 to 54 living alone has almost doubled in the past decade; by 1993, they totalled close to one million, accounting for 9% of all adults in this age group. Compared with other 30 to 54 year-olds, mid-life solos are better-educated, more likely to hold professional or managerial jobs, and more likely to be men. Their average income is about \$2,000 greater than that of other adults in the same age group.

Differences emerge between solo men and women in terms of education, occupation, and labour force participation – with women being better-educated and more

likely to hold white-collar jobs than men, especially the minority of women making \$40,000 or more.

There is no question that the aging of the baby boom has greatly increased the absolute numbers of mid-life solos, but, as noted, the proportion of 30 to 54 year-olds living alone has also risen since the early 1980s. However, the essential demographic characteristics of this group (such as their marital status) have not changed in the past decade, and the reasons for the growth in the creation of solo households probably lie in changing attitudes, expectations and lifestyles. □

Notes

¹ The real average incomes of employed solo householders, both full-time and part-time, were virtually the same in 1992 as in 1981; incomes of those who did not work rose by over \$2,000 (constant 1992 dollars).

² The average age at first marriage is now 27 for women and 29 for men. Only 1% of all 30 to 54 year-olds, and fewer than 4% of solo householders, were widow(er)s in 1993.

³ Because of the small sample size of this group, estimates are frequently too small to be released; therefore, data on many of the characteristics discussed for full-time workers and non-workers cannot be provided.

Three large urban areas in transition

Marie Brodeur and Diane Galarneau

The three largest metropolitan areas, Montreal, Toronto and Vancouver, together accounted for a third of all employment in Canada in 1991. Because of their size and their industrial and financial status, these urban areas are vital not only to their respective provinces, but also to the country as a whole.

Between 1971 and 1991, the relative demographic and economic positions of these three census metropolitan areas (CMAs) changed (see *Definition of census metropolitan area*). Montreal, which had long been the most populous, relinquished the title of Canada's largest CMA to Toronto.¹ Vancouver, previously hampered by its geographic location, now finds itself well placed as trade with Asia expands. Montreal and Toronto, however, remain Canada's centres of economic activity, largely because their respective provinces together account for nearly 60% of the country's population.

This article examines how employment by industry has evolved in these three CMAs since 1971. The analysis is based on data from the 1971, 1981 and 1991 Censuses. The Labour Force Survey is used for a brief overview of trends in 1992 and 1993.

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Definition of census metropolitan area

Census metropolitan areas (CMAs) have different geographic boundaries than the municipalities of Montreal, Toronto, and Vancouver. A CMA is a large urban centre plus adjacent urban and rural areas with which it is integrated economically and socially. A CMA is delineated around an urbanized core with a population of at least 100,000 based on the previous census. This concept takes commuting patterns into consideration.

Because this definition applies to all three CMAs, statistical comparisons are possible. However, between 1971 and 1991, the geographic boundaries were changed (mainly in 1976 and 1986) because of suburban population growth. This study used the CMA boundaries in effect in each census year. The data for 1981 and 1991 were not adjusted to conform to the 1971 boundaries.

For further information, consult the 1991 *Census Dictionary*, Catalogue 92-301E.

Historical and demographic development

Montreal was founded in 1642 at the site of an Indian village (Hochelaga) on the waterways serving the fur trade. Montreal's population grew gradually at first, then more rapidly, especially after the British takeover and the resulting development of the agriculture, manufacturing and financial sectors. For many years, Montreal was the economic hub of Canada. By 1971, it was the country's largest CMA, with 2.7 million inhabitants. However, over the next 20 years, its population rose at a relatively slow pace – 13% – so that by 1991 it was Canada's second largest CMA, with a population of 3.1 million.

British and American loyalist immigrants developed the town of York, which became Toronto in 1834. Proximity to American industrial cities and the settlement of Western Canada meant that Toronto was a more central market than Montreal. This contributed to the CMA's long-term industrial and financial importance. Between 1971 and 1991, Toronto's population increased 47% from 2.6 million to 3.9 million, making it the largest Canadian CMA.

Vancouver, founded in 1886, owes its early growth to British Columbia's natural resources (forestry, fishing, and mining). The CMA's location and port facilities earned it the title, "Canada's window on the Pacific." Vancouver long appeared to be on the "wrong" side of the country, as trade routes favoured the Atlantic over the Pacific. Recently, however, this location has been an advantage, and the CMA has benefited from expanding trade with Asia. The population of Vancouver rose 46% from 1.1 million in 1971 to 1.6 million in 1991, with more than 40% of this increase occurring after 1986.

During the 1971 to 1991 period, the shift in Canada's industrial structure toward a service-based economy was reflected in these three urban areas, as the goods-producing share of total employment declined in each CMA (see *Industrial classification*). In addition, the rate of economic growth measured by real gross domestic product (GDP) slowed from 4.7% in the 1970s to 3.3% in the 1980s. These developments changed the labour market in the three metropolitan areas, but because each one had a different industrial mix, they were not affected to the same extent.

Goods sector

From 1971 to 1991, the proportion of workers in goods-producing industries fell in each of the three CMAs. For the most part, this

Industrial classification

In this study, industries are classified according to the 1970 Standard Industrial Classification.

Goods-producing industries:

Primary: agriculture; fishing and trapping; forestry; mining, quarrying and oil wells.

Manufacturing: food and beverages; tobacco; rubber and plastics; knitting mills; leather; clothing; textiles; wood; furniture and fixtures; paper and allied; printing, publishing and allied; primary metals; metal fabricating; machinery; transportation equipment; electrical products; non-metallic mineral products; petroleum and coal products; chemicals and chemical products; and miscellaneous manufacturing industries.

Construction: general and special-trade contractors.

Service-producing industries:

Consumer services: retail trade; personal services; accommodation and food services; amusement and recreation services; and miscellaneous services.

Financial and commercial services: finance, insurance and real estate; and services to business management.

Distribution services: transportation; communication and other utilities (water, gas, etc.); storage; and wholesale trade.

Social services: education and related services; health and welfare services; and religious organizations.

Public administration and defence: federal administration and defence services; provincial and local administration.

downturn in goods-producing employment was attributable to manufacturing (see *Industries not included in this study*).

In all three CMAs, the number of manufacturing workers was actually higher in 1981 than in 1971, but by 1991 the figures had fallen. The drop was particularly sharp in Montreal and Toronto. From 1981 to 1991 the net employment loss in manufacturing was 15% (-45,000 workers) in Montreal and 10% (-38,000) in Toronto, compared with a 4% drop for Vancouver (-3,000).

Table 1
Employment share by industry and census metropolitan area

	Montreal			Toronto			Vancouver		
	1971	1981	1991	1971	1981	1991	1971	1981	1991
	'000								
All employment	1,007	1,286	1,455	1,178	1,598	2,010	440	639	803
	%								
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Goods-producing industries*	30	28	23	32	29	23	26	23	19
Agriculture and other primary	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	2	2
Manufacturing	25	23	17	25	23	17	16	14	11
Construction	4	4	5	6	5	5	7	6	6
Service-producing industries*	61	69	73	61	68	73	67	74	78
Consumer	18	21	23	19	21	22	22	24	26
Financial and commercial	9	11	14	11	15	19	10	13	16
Distribution	14	15	14	13	14	12	17	17	15
Social	13	15	16	12	12	14	13	14	15
Public administration and defence	5	6	6	6	5	6	5	6	5
Unspecified	9	4	4	7	3	4	7	4	3

Source: 1971, 1981 and 1991 Censuses of Canada

Note: Estimates may not add to 100% due to rounding.

* See Industrial classification.

As a result, in each CMA manufacturing made up a smaller proportion of employment in 1991 than it had 20 years earlier. In 1971, manufacturing dominated the economies of Montreal and Toronto, accounting for one quarter of all employment; by 1991, the proportion had fallen to 17% in both cities. Manufacturing was less important to Vancouver, representing only 16% of workers in 1971. Even so, by 1991, manufacturing's share of Vancouver's employment was down to 11% (Table 1).

Weaker industries

In both Montreal and Toronto, the largest manufacturing employment losses were primarily in the same industries: clothing and textiles,² metal fabricating, and elec-

trical products. Vancouver's greatest manufacturing loss was in the wood industry (Table 2).

The steep declines in Montreal's manufacturing employment are often attributed to the prominent role of its clothing and textile industries. The loss of protective tariffs as a result of market globalization forced these industries to compete with Asian countries where labour costs are significantly lower, and with major industrialized nations such as the United States. As well, clothing and textile industries felt the impact of the last two recessions. Consequently, despite efforts to specialize in top-of-the-line clothing, Montreal had a net loss of almost 19,000 clothing and textile workers from 1981 to 1991.

Table 2
Employment in manufacturing, by census metropolitan area

	Montreal			Toronto			Vancouver		
	1971	1981	1991	1971	1981	1991	1971	1981	1991
	'000								
All manufacturing	256	296	251	297	371	333	73	90	86
Food and beverages	29	32	28	31	39	38	11	13	15
Tobacco	4	3	2	1	1	--	--	--	--
Rubber and plastics	5	7	7	11	16	15	1	2	3
Clothing, textiles and related*	65	70	52	26	33	22	4	6	6
Wood	3	4	5	3	5	5	15	17	10
Furniture and fixtures	8	10	9	9	17	14	2	3	3
Paper and allied	10	11	9	15	16	14	4	5	5
Printing, publishing and allied	17	21	24	29	35	41	6	7	10
Primary metals	9	10	7	8	8	9	2	2	2
Metal fabricating	20	24	17	32	41	29	8	10	9
Machinery	8	13	9	21	24	21	3	6	4
Transportation equipment	17	27	24	25	31	40	5	6	4
Electrical products	23	21	18	32	36	26	3	4	4
Non-metallic mineral products	7	8	6	10	10	8	3	3	2
Petroleum and coal products	4	5	2	4	5	2	1	1	1
Chemicals and chemical products	16	18	19	19	24	25	2	3	3
Miscellaneous	10	12	14	22	29	23	2	3	5

Source: 1971, 1981 and 1991 Censuses of Canada

Note: Estimates may not add to totals due to rounding.

* Also includes knitting mills and leather.

Other substantial employment losses occurred in Montreal's metal fabricating industry (7,000 workers between 1981 and 1991) and electrical products industry (a total decline of 5,000 between 1971 and 1991). The latter is one of only two industries (the other being tobacco) that lost workers in both the 1970s and the 1980s.

Toronto's manufacturing is more diversified, and tends to be concentrated in highly mechanized industries with greater value added³ and higher productivity growth. Between 1981 and 1991, manufacturing employment losses in Toronto were more widespread, with declines of approximately 11,000 workers in each of metal fabricating, clothing and textiles, and electrical products. As in Montreal, the recessions and market globalization were probably largely responsible for these losses. The decline of the metal fabricating industry also reflects technological changes that have reduced the use of metal products.

In 1971, the wood industry dominated Vancouver's manufacturing. However, this sector was adversely affected by equipment modernization and by the 1981-82 recession, which was followed by a drop in all resource prices. Between 1981 and 1991, the decline in Vancouver's wood industry employment amounted to nearly 7,000 workers.

Stronger industries

Certain industries in the three CMAs escaped the general downturn in manufacturing employment. The most notable examples were printing and publishing and chemical products (including pharmaceuticals), which saw net employment increases in each CMA. The resurgence of the printing and publishing industry was most pronounced in Vancouver, while gains in chemicals were more important to Montreal and Toronto, and occurred mainly between 1971 and 1981.

Industries not included in this study

In addition to manufacturing, the goods-producing sector includes agriculture, other primary industries (fishing, forestry and mining), and construction. Agriculture and other primary industries account for only 1% or 2% of employment in the three metropolitan areas, and are, therefore, excluded from the analysis.

The construction industry is very sensitive to economic cycles, and construction activities are tied to project locations. Consequently, census-based measures of employment levels in construction (at a specific time every five years) can be misleading. The Labour Force Survey gives a more complete picture of employment trends in construction. Montreal's construction employment peaked around the 1976 Olympics, and did not regain these levels until 1986. Strong economic growth in the late 1980s had a positive effect on the industry until the recession began in 1990.

In Toronto and Vancouver, too, construction was strong, particularly during the latter half of the 1980s. However, Toronto's construction boom ended abruptly during the 1990-92 recession. By contrast, in Vancouver, Asian and American investment and strong population growth maintained construction employment levels in the early 1990s.

Public administration, a service industry, is also excluded from the analysis, as employment levels in this industry have changed very little over the past 20 years.

From 1981 to 1991, both Montreal and Toronto experienced employment growth in a few other manufacturing industries. In addition to chemicals and printing and publishing, Montreal had slight increases in wood and in rubber and plastics. Toronto had a major gain (9,200 workers) in transportation equipment, as well as comparatively minor growth in primary metals and wood.

But of the three CMAs, Vancouver saw employment rise in the greatest number of manufacturing industries. As well as in chemicals and printing and publishing, there were upturns in food and beverages, rubber and plastics, clothing and textiles, electrical products, furniture, and paper. Even though these gains tended to be relatively

small, they reflected the diversification of Vancouver's manufacturing, which coincided with the decline in wood. And unlike the situation in Montreal and Toronto, many of Vancouver's industries were new, so did not have to undergo restructuring in the 1980s with resulting loss of employment (Kunin and Knauf, 1992).

Changing places

The employment gains and losses in the various components of manufacturing affected the relative importance of different industries in each CMA (Chart A).

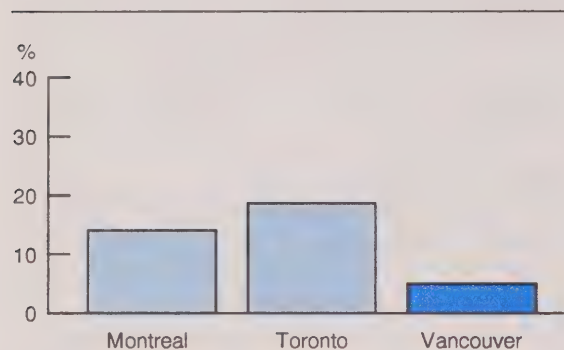
In 1991, despite large employment losses, clothing and textiles continued to account for the largest share of Montreal's manufacturing workers, followed by food and beverages. But while clothing and textiles had employed 25% of the CMA's manufacturing workers in 1971, and food and beverages, 12%, the proportions had fallen to 21% and 11%, respectively, by 1991. As well, in 1991 Montreal's third- and fourth-ranking manufacturing industries were printing and publishing (10%) and transportation equipment (9%); 20 years earlier, electrical products and metal fabricating had stood third and fourth.

Toronto's two leading manufacturing industries in 1971 had been metal fabricating (11%) and electrical products (11%). By 1991, printing and publishing (12%) and transportation equipment (12%) shared first place.

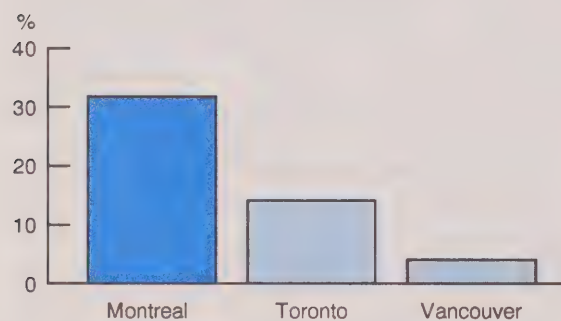
Of the three CMAs, Vancouver experienced the greatest change in the distribution of manufacturing workers. The sharp downturn in wood meant that by 1991 this industry represented just 11% of the CMA's manufacturing employment, compared with 21% two decades earlier. In fact, by 1991 wood ranked third after food and beverages (17%) and printing and publishing (12%).

Chart A

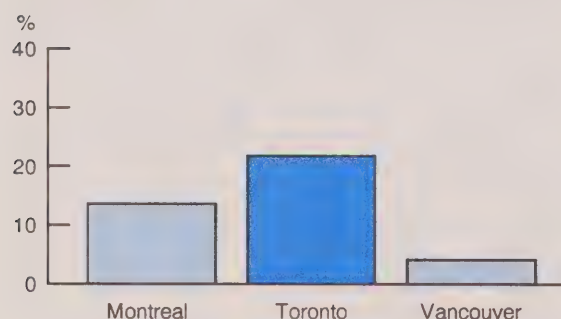
Vancouver accounted for only 5% of employment in Canadian manufacturing in 1991.



Despite losses in the 1980s, Montreal had the lion's share of Canadian workers in clothing and textile* industries ...



... while Toronto still dominated in metal and electrical products and transportation equipment.



Source: Census of Canada, 1991

* Also includes leather and knitting mills.

Service sector

Unlike employment in goods-producing industries, the number of workers in services increased steadily in all three CMAs from 1971 to 1991. During these 20 years, service sector employment rose 75% in Montreal and more than doubled in both Toronto and Vancouver.

As a result, employment in each CMA shifted even more toward the service sector. By 1991, services accounted for 73% of workers in both Montreal and Toronto, up from 61% two decades earlier. Vancouver's service sector also increased (to 78%), although even in 1971 services had represented 67% of the CMA's employment.

Consumer services

Over the two decades, employment in consumer services roughly doubled in all three CMAs. Consequently, by 1991 consumer services accounted for the single largest proportion of workers in each CMA – 23% in Montreal (up from 18% in 1971), 22% in Toronto (from 19%), and 26% in Vancouver (from 22%).

Retail trade represented the greatest share of consumer services workers in 1991, although this proportion had fallen since 1971 in favour of tourism-oriented services such as accommodation and food.⁴ For Montreal and Toronto, tourism employment increased mainly in the 1970s, reflecting the 1976 Olympics in Montreal and the construction of tourism infrastructures such as the CN Tower and convention centres in Toronto. In both CMAs, employment growth in this area fell off in the 1980s.

Growth was strong in Vancouver's tourism-oriented services throughout the 20-year period. Expo 86 probably contributed to the steady rise in such employment from 1981 to 1986, and the many travellers from Asia likely prevented a slowdown in subsequent years.

Financial and commercial services

The fastest growing industry in each CMA was financial and commercial services. Financial, insurance and real estate services, and services to business management are often located in large centres and, because they are "exportable" services, they help to define a CMA's economic influence (Polèse, 1990). From 1971 to 1991, employment in these fields doubled in Montreal, while in both Toronto and Vancouver, numbers almost tripled. In each CMA, growth of the financial and commercial services group was largely attributable to services to business management, which includes legal, computer, accounting, advertising and other services.

To some extent, Toronto's gains in financial and commercial services reflected transfers of head offices and business offices from Montreal. As well, in each CMA firms were increasingly contracting or subcontracting for business management services that they had previously handled themselves.

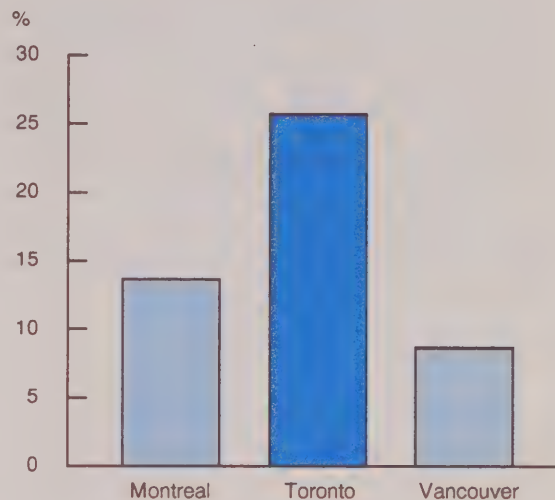
Between 1971 and 1991, financial and commercial services' share of total employment rose from 9% to 14% in Montreal and from 10% to 16% in Vancouver. However, of the three cities, Toronto had the largest share (19%) of its workforce in financial and commercial services in 1991 (up from 11% in 1971), giving it the title of Canada's financial capital (Chart B).

Distribution services

While employment in distribution services increased in each CMA, the pace of growth was slow compared with other service industries. Thus, although distribution services accounted for a large share of workers throughout the two decades, the proportion remained at 14% in Montreal and declined slightly in both Toronto (from 13% to 12%) and Vancouver (from 17% to 15%).

Chart B

In 1991, Toronto accounted for the largest share of employment in financial and commercial services.*



Source: Census of Canada, 1991

* Includes finance, insurance and real estate, and services to business.

Transportation, the dominant industry in distribution services, recorded significant employment losses (-5,500) in Montreal during the 1980s, primarily in rail transport. As a result, Montreal's proportion of distribution services workers in transportation fell from 44% in 1971 to 35% in 1991. On the other hand, employment in transportation increased in Toronto, thanks to expanding air cargo. Vancouver, too, experienced an overall increase in transportation workers, notably in air transport and urban transportation systems. Yet despite these gains, transportation's share of employment in distribution services fell slightly in both cities. To some degree, growth in wholesale trade and in communications compensated for these declines.

Social services

Social services employment grew considerably between 1971 and 1991 in all three CMAs. Numbers doubled in Toronto and Vancouver, while Montreal had a 77% increase. The increase of this group's share of total employment resulted mainly from the rise in health (and social) services after the implementation of universal health care. In 1971, health and education had each accounted for about 6% of employment in the three CMAs. By 1991, the education proportion was the same, while health had risen to 10% in Montreal, 7% in Toronto, and 9% in Vancouver.

Since 1991

The 1991 Census was conducted before the full impact of the 1990-92 recession.⁵ Labour Force Survey data for 1992 and 1993 complete the analysis.⁶

From 1991 to 1993, Montreal and Toronto both recorded employment losses in most industries. The recession was particularly hard on Toronto and led not only to the closing of several manufacturing firms, but also to a drop in service sector employment. Montreal, which had been hit hard by the 1981-82 recession, did not grow as quickly as Toronto during the 1980s, and therefore appeared to be affected less severely by the 1990-92 recession. Montreal's 1% drop in employment compared with a 3% decline in Toronto. In both cities, losses were greatest in manufacturing, financial and commercial services, and distribution services.

In Vancouver, the growth of recent years appears to be falling off. Gains in all industries made in 1992 were eliminated in 1993,⁷ when the CMA recorded its first employment loss in 10 years. Most of the service industries that increased in 1992 declined in 1993, and manufacturing employment dropped in each of the 2 years.

Summary

The shift from goods-producing to service industries that has taken place in Canada over the last two decades affected the country's three largest urban areas. However, the impact of this change depended on the extent to which each CMA's workforce was concentrated in the goods-producing sector, or more specifically, manufacturing.

In 1971, the industrial structures of Montreal and Toronto were dominated by manufacturing. Montreal, with a large proportion of workers in clothing and textiles, was hard hit by major losses in this industry over the 20-year period, particularly between 1981 and 1991. Toronto, with a more diversified industrial structure, suffered smaller losses that were spread among a wider range of industries. Vancouver's wood industry was severely affected by the 1981-82 recession. However, employment in Vancouver recovered as trade with Asia began to intensify.

By 1991, almost three-quarters of all workers in Montreal and Toronto were in the service sector, while in Vancouver the proportion was close to 80%. Over the 20 years, the greatest growth in all three CMAs was in financial and commercial services. Consumer services increased at a slower pace, but still dominated the employment scene in each metropolitan area in 1991. □

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Notes

- ¹ According to 1976 Census data.
- ² This group of industries comprises clothing, textiles, knitting mills, and leather.
- ³ In 1991, metal products, electrical products and transportation equipment accounted for 6% of the labour force in Ontario. These three industries contributed 39% of the value added by manufacturing as a whole in Ontario.
- ⁴ The Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) does not define tourism per se as an industry. Accommodation and food services is often used as a proxy.
- ⁵ According to the Labour Force Survey, the lowest employment level during the recession was in April 1992.
- ⁶ The Labour Force Survey codes industry according to the 1980 Standard Industrial Classification. Use of the 1980 SIC would not affect the findings in this article.
- ⁷ Employment changes by CMA could differ from those observed in studies done by province.

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High income families

Abdul Rashid

The characteristics of families with low incomes are often studied in detail in order to assist in the development of policies and programs that will improve their economic position. In contrast, there is generally very little analysis of the characteristics of families at the top of the income ladder, possibly because of a lack of data on this small group. The Census of Canada is the only survey with a large enough sample base to allow an analysis of many of the characteristics of very small segments of the Canadian population.

A study entitled *Characteristics of High Income Families* was published in 1986 based on data collected in the 1981 Census. It examined the main features of families that constituted the top one percent of income distribution, and noted that the "impact of high income families on the rest of society is considerable. The incomes of these families are generally well above their consumption needs. Thus, their savings become a very important source of funds required for investment and stimuli for economic activity. [These] families often hold responsible positions in the socio-economic structure. Thus, they may be involved in decisions which have a direct impact on a large segment of society."

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Using information from the 1991 Census, this article examines income and other characteristics of families that formed the top percentile in 1990 (See *Data source and definitions*).

The unique position of the top percentile

The range of family incomes is extensive, but most increments within that range are gradual (Chart A). The average family income in 1990 was \$51,300. About one-fifth of all families were within 15%, and over one-quarter were within 20%, of this overall average.

The average family income at the lowest step of the income ladder (first 5% of families) was less than \$6,000. Families required an additional amount of \$3,000 to \$6,000 to reach each of the next 15 steps, and less than \$10,000 to move into each of the next 2 steps. Beyond this level, however, the average income leaped from \$99,100 in the 91st to 95th percentiles, to \$164,400 for families forming the last 5%.

The top percentile was made up of families with an income of at least \$185,000. For the purposes of this study, the 73,600 families in the top percentile were designated "high income families." Their average income in 1990 was \$295,300. This group of families occupied a unique position; while the difference in the average incomes between the 97th and 98th percentile was \$13,400 and that between the 98th and 99th was \$25,700, the difference between the 99th and the top percentile was \$133,000.

Data source and definitions

Census family: A census family consists of a now-married couple (with or without never-married children of either or both spouses), a couple living common-law (with or without never-married children of either or both partners), or a lone parent of any marital status, with at least one never-married child living in the same dwelling.

Family income: The total income of a census family is the sum of the total incomes of all members of that family received during the calendar year preceding the census or survey. The census income concept includes wages and salaries, income from farm and non-farm self-employment, government transfer payments, investment income, retirement pensions and other money income. It does not include income in kind, such as non-monetary benefits received by employees, agricultural products produced and consumed by the self-employed on farms, social and other assistance in kind, inheritances, windfalls, or capital gains or losses, etc.

High income families: All families were arranged in order of size of their income in 1990. Those forming the top percentile were designated as "high income families." The term "high income" is not used as a synonym for "rich" or "wealthy." A young family with high income may not have yet accumulated large assets, while an elderly couple without a large current income may have substantial wealth holdings.

Constant dollars: An increase in current income generally does not amount to an equivalent increase in purchasing power because of changes in the prices of goods and services. To render historical income data in constant dollars, income estimates for years prior to 1990 were converted into 1990 dollars by an adjustment for changes in the Consumer Price Index.

Parents: For ease of reference, the correct but cumbersome terminology of "husbands, wives and lone parents" has been replaced in this article by "parents." In the case of high income families, 99% of these "parents" were husbands and wives. It should, however, be noted that the husbands and wives, though designated as parents, may or may not have children at home. Seven out of ten high income husband-wife families had a never-married child living with them.

Work activity: Work activity of parents is described in terms of weeks worked during the reference year and whether the work was full-time or part-time.

Persons who reported 30 hours or more per week of work and who worked 49 to 52 weeks in the reference year were designated as full-year, full-time workers. All persons who worked less than 30 hours (irrespective of the number of weeks worked) or who worked less than 49 weeks were classified as part-year/part-time workers.

Class of worker: Parents who reported a job were classified into (i) those who worked mainly for someone else for wages, salaries, commissions or payments "in kind," and (ii) those who worked mainly for themselves. Because of the importance of entrepreneurial activity among the high income families, two departures were made from the usual census classification of this variable. Those who reported self-employment in their own incorporated business were combined with other self-employed parents. Similarly, parents who worked without pay in a family farm, business or professional practice owned or operated by a related household member were also classified with the self-employed.

Occupation: Occupation refers to the kind of work persons were doing during the reference week, as determined by the description of the most important duties in their job. The classification used in this article is based on the 1980 Standard Occupational Classification.

Educational level: Spouses in husband-wife families were classified in three groups: those with a university degree, those with no university degree but with a secondary school certificate, and all others.

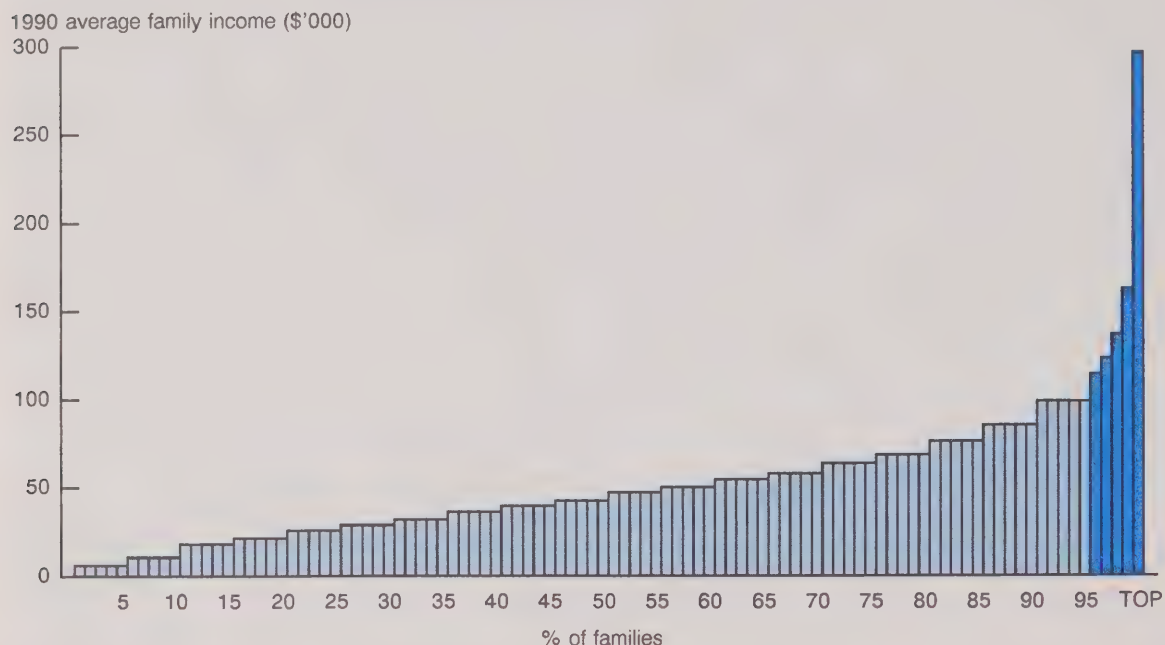
Reference period: The statistics on families (number, age, education, etc.) relate to families as constituted at the time of the census, while those on income and work activity cover the calendar year preceding the census. No recall or adjustment has been made to account for persons who were family members for part of the reference year but then left because of marriage, divorce, death or other reasons. Some families existing at the time of the census were not families during the whole of the reference year.

Data: The data used in this article are from the Censuses of Canada taken in 1971, 1981 and 1991. For a brief description of different aspects of income – collection, processing, quality, etc. – readers may consult the report, *Income*, in the 1991 Census Technical Reports series, Catalogue 92-340E.

For detailed definitions, see Statistics Canada, *1991 Census Dictionary* (Catalogue 92-301E).

Chart A

In the upper ranges, the income ladder becomes very steep.



Source: Census of Canada, 1991

Although the top percentile is treated as a homogeneous group for comparisons with other families, certain variations do exist within this group. On the one hand, about 19% of these families had an income of less than \$200,000 and 24% had an income between \$200,000 and \$225,000. On the other hand, 5% had an income between \$400,000 and \$500,000, while 7% had a total family income of at least half a million dollars. Thus, some families had annual incomes several times greater than those near the lower threshold (\$185,000).

Role of wives

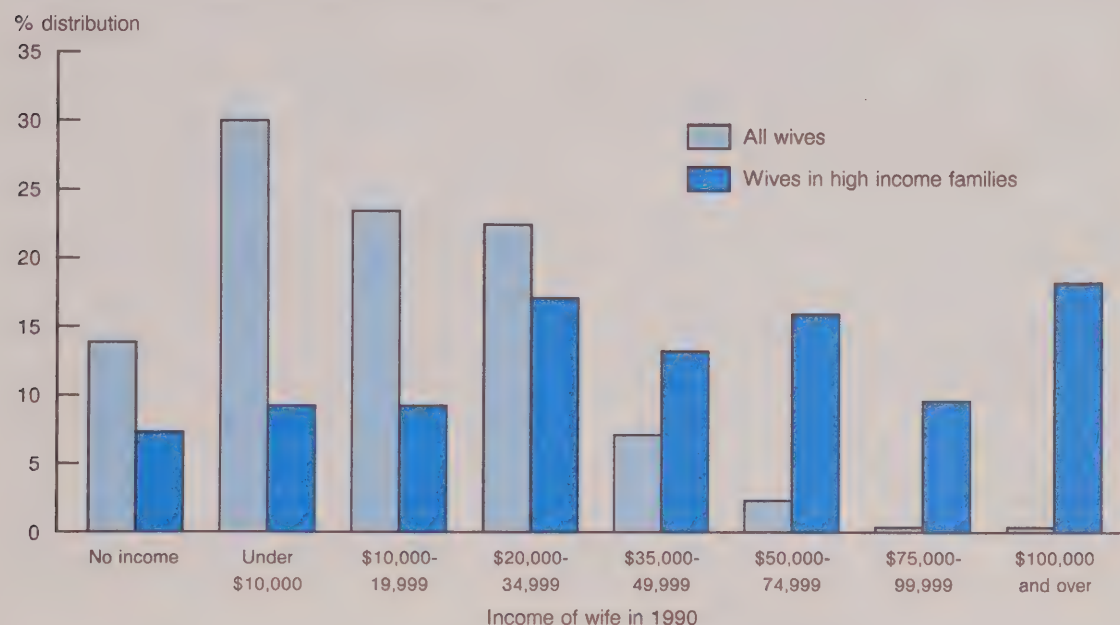
Nearly 14% of all wives had no income in 1990, and the others were generally concentrated in the lower income groups (Chart B).

Over one-half of all wives had an income of less than \$20,000. Only one wife in ten had an income of \$35,000 or more. The overall average income of wives was \$15,800.

In contrast, while 7% of the wives in the top percentile reported no income in 1990, over a quarter of them had an income between \$50,000 and \$100,000, and nearly one-fifth (18%) of them had an income of \$100,000 or more. Their average income in 1990 was \$59,700, nearly four times the average income of all wives, 67% above that of all husbands, and 9% above the overall average family income.¹ There were 71,700 husband-wife families with an income of at least \$185,000. Without the income of wives, only 40,600 or 57% of them would have reached this level of family income.

Chart B

Nearly one in five wives in high income families* had an income of at least \$100,000.



Source: Census of Canada, 1991

* High income families had a total income of \$185,000 or more in 1990.

Incidence of income sources

In 1990, 86% of all families and 98% of high income families received one of the three types of employment income (Table 1).² Compared with the overall rate of 83%, the incidence of wages and salaries among high income families was 91% in 1990.³ The families in the top percentile were four times more likely to receive income from self-employment in a non-farm business or professional practice – 42% as opposed to 10% for all families. About 6% of high income families, compared with less than 4% of all families, reported farm income.

Compared with one-half of all families, four out of five families in the top percentile reported income from non-employment sources, with the incidence of investment income (77%) significantly above average (42%). The incidence of retirement pensions in the high income families (14%) was very close to the overall average (13%). However, among families with at least one person 70 years or over, the incidence was significantly higher in the top percentile (69%) than among all families (53%).

Finally, government transfer payments were, on the whole, the second most common source of family income in 1990.

Table 1
Selected family income indicators, 1990

	Incidence		Average income*		Composition of total income	
	All families	Top 1% families	All families	Top 1% families	All families	Top 1% families
	%		\$		%	
Sources of income						
Employment	85.5	97.5	48,262	236,619	80.4	78.1
Wages and salaries	83.0	91.3	45,919	176,081	74.2	54.4
Non-farm self-employment	10.3	42.4	26,679	154,588	5.3	22.2
Farm self-employment	3.6	5.9	11,499	75,930	0.8	1.5
Non-employment	49.1	79.0	10,272	78,043	9.8	20.9
Investment income	41.9	76.9	7,136	67,951	5.8	17.7
Retirement pensions	12.9	14.4	12,599	38,422	3.2	1.9
Other money income**	8.0	11.7	5,310	32,813	0.8	1.3
Government transfer payments	80.3	68.8	6,272	4,300	9.8	1.0
Old Age Security and						
Guaranteed Income Supplement	13.3	10.9	8,553	6,862	2.2	0.3
Canada/Quebec Pensions	18.1	13.6	5,384	6,189	1.9	0.3
Family allowances and Child						
Tax Credit	50.8	49.1	1,372	848	1.4	0.1
Other government transfers†	42.7	22.8	5,223	4,159	4.3	0.3

Source: Census of Canada, 1991

* Per recipient family

** Other money income refers to regular cash income received during calendar year 1990 and not reported in any of the other nine sources in this table; e.g., alimony, child support, periodic support from other persons not in the household, non-refundable scholarships and bursaries, severance pay, royalties, etc.

† Other government transfer payments include provincial income supplements to seniors to supplement OAS and GIS, unemployment insurance benefits, social assistance, veterans' pensions, war veterans' allowances, workers' compensation, and amounts received in 1990 for refundable provincial and federal tax credits.

Compared with 80% of all families, 69% of high income families received some form of transfer payment. The relatively high incidence of these payments in the top percentile was primarily because of family allowances, which were not related to family income.⁴ The proportion of recipients of family allowances among high income families (49%) was very similar to the overall average (51%). However, while three out of five families received both family allowances and child tax credits, families in the top percentile received family allowances only. The incidence of other transfer payments among high income families (23%) was substantially lower than among all families (43%).

Combination of sources

Not only was the incidence of various income sources higher among the top percentile families, these families were also more likely to be recipients of multiple sources. On the whole, 40% of all families, but only 11% of high income families, received their entire income from wages. Compared with 32% of all families, 41% of high income families reported wages and at least one income source other than self-employment. The most important difference concerned families reporting both wages and self-employment income, mostly with another source of income. Compared with the overall proportion of 11%, there were 40% such families in the top percentile.

Average income from sources

While the incidence of wages and salaries among high income families was only about 8 percentage points higher than the overall rate, the average wage received by the top percentile was nearly four times larger (\$176,100 versus \$45,900). For families reporting income from non-farm self-employment, the average for high income families (\$154,600) was six times larger than the national average (\$26,700). Similar differences were present for self-employment income from farming.

Investment income showed the largest relative difference. Not only were the families in the top percentile almost twice as

likely to report investment income, but their average receipt (\$68,000) was nearly ten times larger than the overall average (\$7,100). And while the amount of government transfer payments to high income families was smaller, their average income from both retirement pensions and the catch-all category "other money income" was, as may be expected, significantly larger.

Share of income

In 1990, families in the top percentile received nearly 6% of all family income. However, their shares in the total incomes from various sources differed widely (Table 2).

Table 2
Shares of aggregate family income from various sources, 1990

	Share of aggregate income received by families in:				Total
	1st-90th percentile	91st-95th percentile	96th-99th percentile	Top percentile	
	%				
Total share					
Wages and salaries	74.8	10.8	10.2	4.2	100.0
Net non-farm self-employment income	43.2	9.9	23.0	23.9	100.0
Net farm self-employment income	63.7	9.8	15.7	10.8	100.0
Investment income	57.4	9.7	15.5	17.5	100.0
Government transfer payments	94.3	2.8	2.3	0.6	100.0
Other income*	79.7	7.2	8.5	4.6	100.0
All sources	74.2	9.7	10.4	5.8	100.0
Average share per percentile**					
Wages and salaries	0.8	2.2	2.5	4.2	1.0
Net non-farm self-employment income	0.5	2.0	5.7	23.9	1.0
Net farm self-employment income	0.7	2.0	3.9	10.8	1.0
Investment income	0.6	1.9	3.9	17.5	1.0
Government transfer payments	1.0	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.0
Other income*	0.9	1.4	2.1	4.6	1.0
All sources	0.8	1.9	2.6	5.8	1.0

Source: Census of Canada, 1991

* All other cash income received in 1990 including retirement pensions

** This allows comparison between the top percentile and each other percentile: for instance, the 96th-99th percentiles have an average share of 2.5% (per percentile) of wages and salaries ($10.2\% \div 4$ percentiles).

High income families' share of wages and salaries was over four times their relative strength. Nearly one-quarter of all income from non-farm self-employment went to the top percentile of families. Their share in the aggregate income from farm self-employment was also very high (11%). The top percentile received over 17% of the aggregate investment income of all families.

Not only do top percentile families differ from all other families, they also differ significantly from families close to them on the income scale. Thus, *on a per percentile basis*, families in the 91st to 95th percentiles received 2.2% of all wages, and those in the 96th to 99th percentiles received 2.5%, but the share of the top percentile amounted to 4.2%. The spread was much wider for non-farm self-employment in which the share of the top percentile was 23.9%, compared with 5.7% per percentile for the 96th to 99th percentiles and 2.0% per percentile for the 91st to 95th percentiles. The top percentile's share in total investment income occupied a similar position.

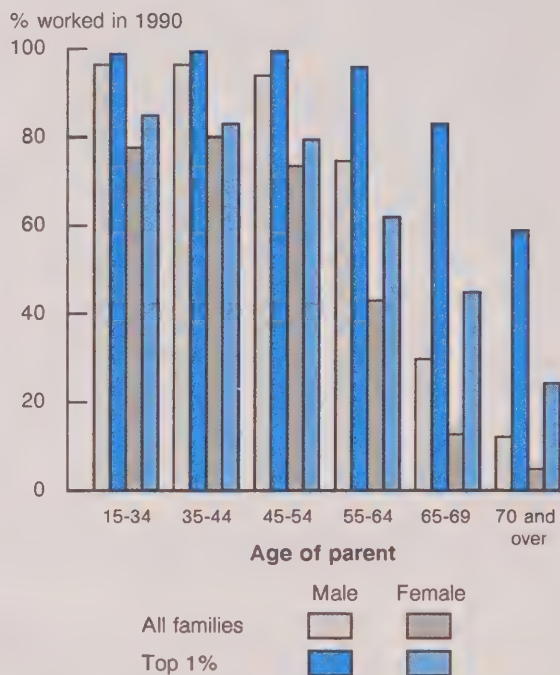
High income families work longer

In general, families tend to move into higher income brackets as they gain work experience, so that young families are unlikely to have very large family incomes. The 1991 Census data show that the age profile of families in the top percentile differed significantly from the overall picture. The median age of all male parents was 45 years and that of all female parents was 42 years; the respective median ages of parents in the top percentile were 50 and 47 years.⁵

The incidence of work beyond the usual age of retirement was much higher among parents in high income families (Chart C). While the overall incidence of work began to drop sharply beyond 54 years, the decline was much slower among the top percentile families. Even in the 70 years and over group, where overall work activity was minimal, 59% of male and 24% of female

Chart C

Parents* in high income families are more likely to work beyond age 65.



Source: Census of Canada, 1991

* Parents consist of husbands, wives and lone parents. Husbands and wives may be with or without never-married children.

parents in high income families worked in 1990.

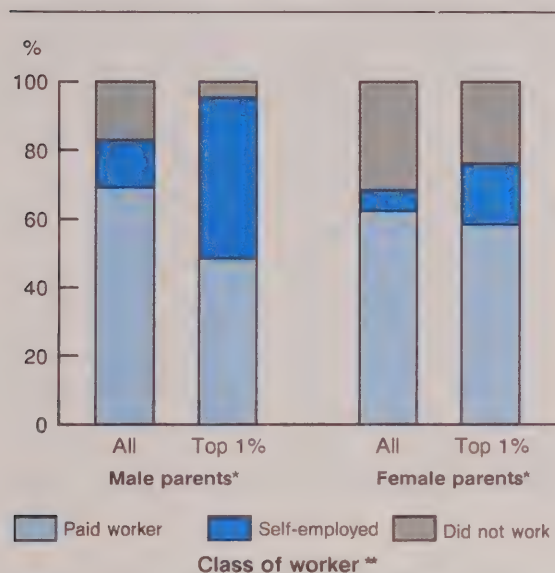
More entrepreneurial activity

A major distinguishing feature of families in the top percentile is the distribution of parents by class of worker.

On the whole, 70% of male parents were paid workers, 13% were self-employed,⁶ and 17% did not work (Chart D). In high income families, only 4% of male parents did not work, and the rest were almost equally divided between paid work and self-employment. In the case of female parents, 16% of those in the top percentile were self-employed, compared with the overall average of

Chart D

Self-employment is much more frequent among high income families.



Source: Census of Canada, 1991

* Parents consist of husbands, wives and lone parents. Husbands and wives may be with or without never-married children.

** See Data source and definitions.

5%. Thus, the entrepreneurial activity was 3.5 times more common among parents in high income families (32%) than in all families (9%).

Top percentile dominated by managers and professionals

Overall, male workers are dispersed across the entire spectrum of occupations, while female workers are concentrated in a few occupations. In the case of high income families, this pattern does not hold. In these families, about 62% of male parents and 51% of female parents were concentrated in two major occupation groups.

Compared with 17% of all male parents, 42% of those in high income families were in managerial, administrative and related occupations. The comparable propor-

tions for female parents were 11% and 23% (Table 3). Within this major occupation group, the incidence of general managers and other senior officials in the top percentile was eight times the overall average for male parents and six times higher for female parents.

About 2% of all male parents and 9% of all female parents were in the medical and health occupations. Among the top percentile families, 19% of male parents and 14% of female parents belonged to this major occupation group. Over one-quarter of all parents who were physicians, surgeons and dentists belonged to high income families.

Although occupations in social sciences and related fields accounted for only about 2% of all parents, 8% of male parents and 6% of female parents in the top percentile were in this group, mostly in the legal profession.

Educational attainment and work activity

Two characteristics most closely associated with income are education and work activity. The higher the educational attainment and the more extensive the work activity, the higher the income is likely to be. Since both spouses contribute significantly to family income, the status of both husbands and wives is taken into account in the following analysis (**restricted to husband-wife families**).

The educational attainment of high income families is substantially above the overall average. In 1991, about 15% of all husbands and 10% of all wives had a university degree. In the top percentile, 58% of the husbands and 36% of the wives were degree holders. Compared with 6% of all husband-wife families, both spouses had a university degree in 31% of the top percentile families (Table 4). At the other end of the educational spectrum, compared with 24% of all families, in only 8% of high income families did both spouses have less than secondary school education.

Table 3
Occupations of parents* in all families and high income families, 1990

	Male parents		Female parents	
	All families	Top 1% families	All families	Top 1% families
	%			
Total occupations**	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
General managers and other senior officials†	2.1	17.2	0.6	3.6
Other managerial occupations	14.7	25.1	10.0	19.8
Physicians and surgeons	0.6	14.2	0.2	4.5
Dentists	0.2	2.8	—	0.5
Other occupations in medicine and health	1.3	2.4	9.2	8.9
Natural sciences, engineering and mathematics	6.1	4.3	1.6	1.6
Judges, magistrates, lawyers and notaries	0.6	7.0	0.2	2.4
Other occupations in social sciences	1.0	0.8	2.6	3.1
Occupations in religion, teaching, artistic, literary, recreational and related occupations	5.0	3.1	8.3	11.3
Clerical and related occupations	5.6	1.5	31.6	27.4
Sales agents and traders in securities	0.2	1.1	0.1	0.3
Other sales occupations	8.2	8.3	8.7	8.7
Service occupations	7.9	1.7	15.1	3.5
Farming, horticultural and animal husbandry occupations	3.9	2.6	2.3	2.0
All other occupations	42.8	7.3	9.6	2.3

Source: Census of Canada, 1991

* Parents consist of husbands, wives and lone parents. Husbands and wives may be with or without never-married children.

** Excludes those who did not work.

† Includes occupations in the senior levels of managerial and administrative work concerned with planning, organizing, directing and controlling on owners' or own behalf.

Table 4
Husband-wife families by educational attainment of spouses

	All families			Top 1% families		
	1970	1980	1990	1970	1980	1990
Average family income (1990 \$)	38,479	50,124	54,667	207,529	254,711	295,512
	%					
Educational attainment	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
University degree	8.6	13.8	18.5	47.4	50.1	62.7
Both spouses	1.8	4.0	6.4	13.0	17.6	30.7
Husband only	5.8	7.5	8.1	31.8	28.4	27.0
Wife only	0.9	2.3	4.0	2.5	4.1	4.9
Secondary school*	39.2	54.5	57.3	32.8	36.0	29.7
Both spouses	15.1	28.1	36.8	17.0	20.1	20.8
Husband only	10.8	15.0	10.0	7.6	7.9	4.2
Wife only	13.2	11.5	10.4	8.3	8.0	4.6
Less than secondary school	52.2	31.7	24.2	19.8	13.7	7.6

Source: Census of Canada

* Includes those with postsecondary education other than a university degree.

In 1990, 81% of all husbands and 66% of all wives worked, compared with 95% of the husbands and 74% of the wives in high income families. On the whole, 56% of all husbands and 32% of all wives worked full year, full time. The proportions among the top percentile were 74% for husbands and 37% for wives.

The contribution of spouses towards family income varied by their work activity and educational attainment. This variation was much more pronounced in the case of wives. In 1990, wives' contribution ranged from 24% for those with less than secondary school education, to 36% for those with a university degree, and from 14% for those who did not work, to 40% for those who worked full year, full time (Chart E). The trend was similar in the case of high income families.

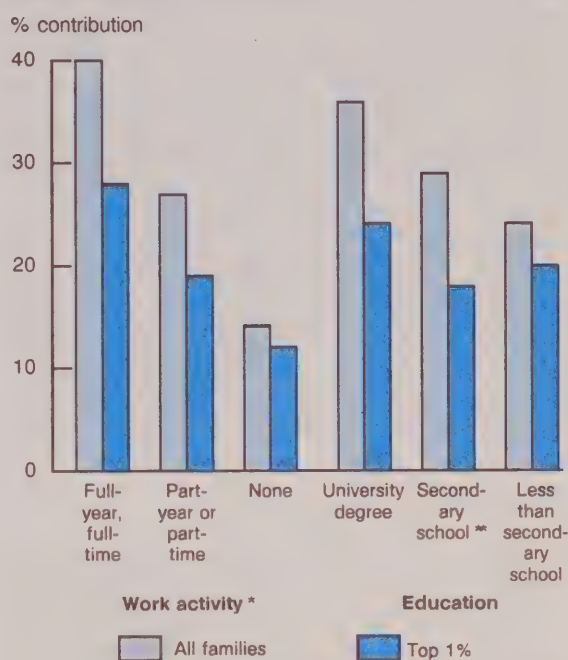
Changes in education and work profiles

The average income of all husband-wife families in constant (1990) dollars increased by 30% between 1970 and 1980 and by a further 9% between 1980 and 1990.⁷ The average income of husband-wife families in the top percentile increased by 23% in the seventies and by 16% in the eighties (Table 4). Changes in both the educational profiles and work patterns of husband-wife families played a major role in augmenting family incomes.

In 1970, both spouses had less than secondary school certificate in 52% of all husband-wife families, and at least one spouse had a university degree in less than 9% of the families. By 1990, the proportions changed to 24% and 19%. In contrast, compared with 47% in 1970, at least one spouse had a university degree in 63% of high income families.

Chart E

Wives' contribution to the income of husband-wife families varies by work activity and by education.



Source: Census of Canada, 1991

* See Data source and definitions.

** Includes post-secondary education other than university degree.

Although the overall proportion of non-working husbands increased from 10% in 1970 to 19% in 1990, this was more than compensated by the increase in the proportion of working wives, from 44% in 1970 to 66% in 1990. As a consequence of these changes, the proportion of husband-wife families in which both spouses worked increased from 42% in 1970 to 54% in 1980 and 62% in 1990.

These changes were even more substantial in the case of high income husband-wife families. The proportion of working wives in these families more than doubled, from 36% in 1970 to 74% in 1990. Furthermore, while the overall increase in the proportion of full-year, full-time working wives amounted to 15 percentage points, their proportion in the top percentile increased by 24 points. In 1970, both spouses worked in 36% of high income families. This proportion increased to 59% in 1980, and to 74% in 1990.

On the whole, the contribution of wives towards family income increased from 15% in 1970 to 29% in 1990. There was a similar doubling of wives' contribution in the high income families, from 10% in 1970 to 20% in 1990.

Summary

One percent of all families had an income of \$185,000 or more in 1990. Compared with the overall average family income of \$51,300, the average income of these 73,600 high income families was \$295,300, with 7% having an income of at least half a million dollars. The top percentile received about 6% of total family income, nearly one-quarter of all income from self-employment and about one-fifth of total investment income.

Both the incidence of various sources and the amounts received from them were well above average among the top percentile families. Multiple sources of income were the norm in the top percentile.

About three-quarters of all family income in 1990 came from wages and salaries, compared with a little over one-half in the top percentile. Non-farm self-employment income and investment income constituted, respectively, 22% and 18% of their income, compared with 5% and 6% for all families.

Parents in high income families were more likely to work beyond the usual age of retirement. One-half of working male parents and about one-sixth of female parents in the top percentile were self-employed. They were highly concentrated in managerial, legal and medical occupations.

Compared with less than 19% of all husband-wife families, at least one spouse had a university degree in 63% of high income families. Again, compared with 81% of all husbands and 66% of all wives, 95% of the husbands and 74% of the wives in the high income families worked in 1990. The average income of wives in the top percentile was substantial at \$59,700. Over two-fifths of the families in the top percentile entered this group by virtue of the income of wives.

Between 1970 and 1990, the educational attainment of both spouses and the participation of wives in the labour force increased considerably. The changes were even more pronounced among families in the top percentile. Concomitant with these changes, the overall average contribution of wives to family income increased from 15% in 1970 to 29% in 1990, and it doubled from 10% to 20% in the top percentile. □



1994 International Year of the Family

Notes

¹ Differences are calculated from unrounded data.

² All families were divided into two groups: high income families (1%) and all other families (99%). However, the difference between the characteristics of 99% and all families is insignificant. Therefore, for ease of reference, the various statistics for high income families are compared with overall averages.

³ The incidence of an income source among families will always be higher than among individuals. For example, if each family consists of two adults and only one of them in each family reports a source of income, the incidence will be 50% among individuals, but 100% among families.

⁴ In 1990, payment of family allowances was based on the age of children, and was universal for families with children of the appropriate age. Beginning in January 1993, family allowances, refundable child tax credits and non-refundable credits for dependent children have been combined in a single Child Tax Benefit, which is tied to the level of parental income.

⁵ Parents consist of husbands, wives and lone parents. It should be noted that 97% of all male parents were husbands, and 89% of all female parents were wives. In the top percentile, the proportions were 99% for both male and female parents. See also *Data source and definitions*.

⁶ In the Census and the Labour Force Survey statistics, individuals who report themselves as self-employed with an incorporated business are treated as paid workers. The overall incidence of such cases is very small, but they accounted for over one-fifth of male parents and 7% of female parents in high income families. They probably own most of the share capital in these corporations and, notwithstanding the legal status of the business, behave as independent entrepreneurs. For this reason, such individuals are included with the self-employed group in this paper. See also *Data source and definitions*.

⁷ See Rashid, A. (1994) for a detailed analysis of the changes in family incomes between 1970 and 1990.

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What's new?

Just released

Women who work outside the home

The increasingly important role women play in the labour market and their interaction with their families are the focus of *Women in the Labour Force, 1994 edition*. In eight chapters, the recently released report covers labour force participation, employment, unemployment, earnings and pension coverage, education, work and family responsibilities, union membership, work and health. An appendix, "Milestones for women since 1955," briefly describes changes in legislation and in choice of occupation that have altered women's standing in the labour force. For the most part, information is provided at the national level, and provincial breakdowns are published where appropriate.

The information is culled from a number of Statistics Canada sources, among them the Labour Force Survey, Absence from Work Survey, Survey of Consumer Finances, General Social Survey, and National Child Care Study. Although the data are not new, the thematic approach and the compendium format allow statistics from a variety of sources to be seen from a somewhat different perspective.

Among the highlights of the report are the following:

- During the 1975-1993 period, women accounted for three-quarters of all employment growth in Canada. By 1993,

51% of all women aged 15 and over worked outside the home, up from 41% in 1975.

- An increasing proportion of women working part time would prefer to have full-time jobs. In 1993, one-third (34%) of female part-timers wanted full-time work, compared with only one-fifth (20%) in 1989.
- Women have made considerable inroads into certain occupations. In 1993, 26% of all doctors, dentists and health-diagnosing and -treating professionals were women, up from 18% in 1982. Women have also sharply improved their share of managerial and administrative jobs, but they remain considerably under-represented among professionals employed in natural sciences, engineering and mathematics.
- Women still earn significantly less than men. In 1992, women in the paid workforce working full time full year made 72% of the average earnings of their male counterparts. Nevertheless, this ratio was up from 68% in 1990 and from about 64% in the early 1980s.
- As their activity in the workforce has increased, a rising proportion of women are participating in pension plans such as the Canada/Quebec Pension Plan, employer-sponsored pension plans and RRSPs.

- In 1992, 61% of husband-wife families enjoyed the income of two earners, with wives' earnings contributing about 31% to the family's total income.
- Working women are still responsible for most of the work around the house, spending about two hours more than men each day on such household tasks as domestic work, primary child care and shopping.

Women in the Labour Force, 1994 edition (Catalogue 75-507E) is available for \$40 from any Statistics Canada Reference Centre, or from Marketing Division, Sales and Service, Statistics Canada, Ottawa K1A 0T6; fax (613) 951-1584. Or call toll free 1 800 267-6677. □

Research Paper Series, Analytical Studies Branch

What is Happening to Weekly Hours Worked in Canada?

René Morissette and Deborah Sunter
Research Paper No. 65

This paper studies the erosion of the standard 35- to 40-hour work week, and the polarization of workers into those working longer hours and those working shorter. As such, it provides a follow-up to an earlier study in this series, *What is Happening to Earnings Inequality in Canada?* (Research Paper Series No. 60; see *What's New?*, Autumn 1994). The authors examine the trend in hours worked from 1976 to 1993, and conclude that although the average number of hours Canadians work per week has not changed, the underlying distribution shifted significantly in the 1980s. Proportionally fewer Canadians work a standard week of 35 to 40 hours, and the study documents the rise of part-time employment in conjunction with the increase in longer work hours, although

it does not distinguish between voluntary and involuntary part-timers. Highlights of the findings include:

- The proportion of men working a standard 35- to 40-hour week fell from 77% in 1981 to 69% in 1993, while for women it dropped from 68% to 61%. This is mainly due to the increase in part-time employment but also to a significant rise in the number of people putting in 50 hours or more per week, up to 13% for men and 4% for women by 1993.
- Although the proportion of workers with a standard work week fell regardless of their educational level, university graduates, both men and women, were most likely to record a shift to longer hours.
- The increase in longer hours was observed in most major industrial groups, as relatively more workers put in more hours in the service and manufacturing sectors.
- Among men, the reason for the erosion of standard weekly hours – whether it was an increase in longer or shorter hours – varied by occupation. In some occupations, longer hours replaced standard hours; for example, management and administration (up 6 percentage points), sales (3 points), and processing-related (2 points) occupations. In other occupations – clerical, service, teaching and medicine – the standard work week was eaten away by rising part-time employment.
- Among women, only those in sales and service occupations withstood the erosion of standard hours. Women working in management/administration, natural sciences, social sciences, and processing occupations were more likely to work longer hours, while those in clerical occupations tended to have shorter hours.

The authors suggest that the reasons for the inequality in working hours may include firms' decisions to counteract declining revenues or increasing competition by restricting hiring, demanding longer hours of their full-time employees, and relying more heavily on part-time staff.

This and other studies in the Research Paper series are available free of charge in both official languages from the Analytical Studies Branch, Statistics Canada, Ottawa K1A 0T6. Or call Valerie Thibault at (613) 951-1804. □

SLID Research Paper series a feast for data users and armchair survey managers

The project team for the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID) has documented steps in the development of this longitudinal survey. The team's studies and evaluations are published in the *SLID Research Paper* series. The series contains a mixture of topics, from a technical discussion of weighting to the questions asked in a computer-assisted interview. Papers that may interest *Perspectives* readers are briefly described below:

The Use of Income Tax Data for SLID (Paper No. 93-01)

Collecting data on individual and family incomes often presents data quality problems because many respondents consider income to be a sensitive topic. The percentage of people who do not respond is higher than for many other subjects; among those who do respond, under-reporting is problematic for many income components. It is also believed that data of much higher quality are obtained if respondents refer to financial documents for the requested amounts. For these reasons, in May 1993 SLID tested an approach to collecting income data whereby respondents were encouraged, as much as

possible, to refer to their T1 income tax forms. While this may seem like an obvious solution to the usual collection problems, it is not without difficulties of its own. This paper discusses the advantages and disadvantages of this approach.

Questionnaire Design in a Paperless Society (Paper No. 93-08)

The SLID Questionnaire Design Team decided in the early stages of planning and development that the data collection procedure used would be decentralized computer-assisted interviewing (CAI). The challenge was to design a new "questionnaire" for this mode of data collection. This paper describes the learning curve associated with breaking away from the traditional method of developing questions for a "paper and pencil" questionnaire to providing specifications for questions and flows for a programmer.

SLID Test 3B Results: Income Sources (Paper No. 93-15)

In May 1993, SLID conducted a field test of its income interview (Test 3B) using a slightly modified approach to collecting personal income. As usual, a paper questionnaire was sent a few weeks prior to the interview for respondents to complete, followed by a telephone call from the interviewer to collect the information. However, the interviewer used CAI for the collection. The survey also introduced items on personal assets and debts. This document outlines the results of an initial evaluation of the income items in Test 3B. Papers No. 93-16 and 93-17 complete the evaluation of Test 3B.

SLID Test 3B Results: Impact of Notebook (Paper No. 93-16)

In the May 1993 income test, SLID adopted a new approach to questionnaire design: a "lighter" non-bureaucratic look to the form mailed to respondents. The questionnaire, called the SLID Notebook, also included more detailed information on each item. (Traditionally, this extra information has

been provided in a guide separate from the questionnaire.) The SLID Notebook was also designed, to the extent possible, for respondents to copy information directly from their income tax return by making explicit references to particular lines on the tax return. This document outlines the results of an initial evaluation of the effectiveness of the SLID Notebook.

SLID Test 3B Results: Assets and Debts (Wealth)

(Paper No. 93-17)

In the May 1993 test of the SLID income survey, a series of "wealth" items covering the value of assets and debts was included. Another three data items were added to allow the computation of the current value of an individual's employment pension. This report presents the results of the wealth component of the May test; some comparisons with other data sources are included. The preliminary results indicate that the collection of wealth data may be feasible, but response burden is an issue.

Social and Labour Market Policy Research Using the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics

(Paper No. 94-04)

This report describes some of the research data needs that SLID is expected to fill and describes the survey team's perception of the principal ways in which the data will be used. The report identifies five major research areas and, in general terms, discusses their associated data needs. The research areas selected are employment and unemployment dynamics; life-cycle related labour market transitions; job quality or quality of working life; family economic mobility; and dynamics of low income. All these subjects are inherently longitudinal, and all have some potential for influencing social or labour market policy.

SLID Labour Interview Questionnaire – February 1994

(Paper No. 94-05)

In February 1994, SLID conducted the labour portion of the survey content using a computer-assisted interviewing (CAI) approach. Because of the nature of CAI, there is no paper version of the questionnaire. This document is therefore intended to be a written approximation of the "questionnaire" originally administered in the CAI format. The paper provides question wording, lays out the possible responses, and maps out the flow of the questions.

The Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics: Lessons Learned in Testing

(Paper No. 94-07)

This paper reviews some of the highlights of the SLID testing. Among the topics covered are the effect of user consultations on defining survey content; designing questionnaires for computer-assisted interviewing and for dependent interviewing; testing the approaches for assigning weekly labour force status and for collecting income data; and developing a prototype for data quality reporting.

1994 Income Questionnaire

(Paper No. 94-08)

In May 1994, SLID conducted the income portion of the survey content. A list of questions was mailed to respondents ahead of time, encouraging them to consult records for accurate responses. (The interviewer asked a few additional questions when collecting the data.) Since CAI was used, there was no questionnaire in the traditional sense. The document describes the data collection procedures and the question wordings, as well as the rationale for the direction chosen.

For more information on the Research Paper series, contact Philip Giles at (613) 951-2891; or fax (613) 951-3253. An annual subscription costs \$50; individual copies are available for \$5. □

Special Surveys offers microdata files on PC-friendly diskette

The Special Surveys Division at Statistics Canada develops, designs and conducts surveys on behalf of numerous clients. Most of these clients are, in fact, other government departments needing information for policy and program development. Sometimes a consortium of public and private interests, often a university in tandem with a government department or agency, will commission and sponsor a survey to meet its research requirements.

Although a few special surveys are conducted regularly, most are held only once or on an irregular basis. There is no formal publication program within the division to publish results regularly, although sometimes a sponsor or its delegate will produce a special report or overview publication that is generally available. Thus, the data have often been available only in the form of public microdata files on 9-track magnetic tape, or as custom tabulations. The 9-track tapes have recently been replaced by IBM 3480 magnetic cartridges, still for mainframe use.

Now, many of the public microdata files are available on 3.5 inch diskettes for use on a PC. The data are stored as flat ASCII files and are usually placed on the diskettes in a compressed format. Software is provided to load the files onto a PC hard drive and return it to its original size. Regular survey documentation containing descriptions of survey design and methodology, a record layout, and data definitions and limitations accompany all data files. Some of the more recent surveys come complete with electronic file descriptions, or "codebooks," that save the user the trouble of keying in codes and labels.

Special surveys are most often household surveys, and as such are usually conducted as supplements to the Labour Force Survey (LFS), assuring the linkage of

important socio-economic variables to the specific subject matter of the individual survey. Special surveys on diskette that may interest *Perspectives* readers are briefly described below:

Absence from Work Survey (annual): absences of paid employees during the previous year because of illness, accident, or pregnancy; type of financial compensation received during absence.

Survey of Job Opportunities (annual): actual and preferred labour force participation patterns of persons not active in the labour force; type of work desired; discouraged workers.

Adult Education and Training Survey (1990, 1992, 1994): adults 17 and older who participated in education or training programs and courses; types of training taken; employer support of training efforts; reason for taking training; barriers to training and education.

Survey of Technological Change (1992): extent of changes in the workplace; employee participation in introducing and managing change; employees' attitudes to technological change.

Survey of Persons Not in the Labour Force (1992): activities of persons outside the labour force; their past and future attachment to the labour force; current activities and financial resources; educational plans of youths neither working nor in school; circumstances surrounding retirement of those who retired earlier than planned.

Survey of Graduates (1984, 1988, 1992): labour market experience of post-secondary graduates in the two years following graduation; match between field of study and employment found; extent of job and career satisfaction; rates of underemployment and unemployment.

Follow-up of Graduates Survey (1987): in this longitudinal survey, respondents to the 1984 Graduates Survey were contacted again to assess their labour market situation five years after graduation.

Survey of Work Arrangements (1991): work schedules of paid employees; the employee's control over work schedule; regular hours worked at home; reasons for multiple jobholding.

Labour Market Activity Survey (1987-1991): this longitudinal survey measures the frequency and number of job changes that occurred over one-, two- and three-year periods, and types and characteristics of jobs held (wages, work schedules, union membership, etc.). Data are also available as a cross-sectional file for the individual years. The entire LMAS microdata file is available on CD-ROM, and comes with a data extraction software package to allow users to create smaller sub-files.

Survey of Literacy Skills Used in Daily Activities (1989): the adult population is classified into four literacy levels based on the information processing skills (reading, writing and numeracy) required to use printed material (in one of the official languages) commonly encountered at work, home and in the community.

National Child Care Survey (1988): extent of child-care requirements; arrangements used by parents and options they would prefer; factors influencing child-care needs; patterns of use; affordability and quality of different child-care options. These data are stored in a database format and

come with an extraction software package to allow the creation of subfiles containing user-specified variables.


Survey of Volunteer Activity (1987): characteristics of volunteers; beneficiaries of volunteer activities; time spent and satisfaction derived from volunteering; out-of-pocket expenses incurred by volunteers; training received in connection with volunteer activity.

Survey of Displaced Workers (1986): number of workers affected by job displacements and reasons for job cutbacks or elimination of shifts; stability of certain industries and occupations; duration of unemployment; relocation of worker to find other employment; insurance benefits and training.

Survey of the Self-Employed (1986): amount and seasonality of paid employment generated by the self-employed; skill level of paid workers hired by the self-employed.

Survey of Maternity Leave (1985): effect of pregnancy on women's work patterns; adequacy of income support (public and private) before and after birth of the child; difficulties returning to work; reasons for not returning to the workforce.

The cost of a Special Surveys Division microdata file on diskette or electronic cartridge varies from approximately \$600 to \$2,000. For information, call Mike Sivyer of Special Surveys Division at (613) 951-4598 or toll free at 1 800 461-9050; or fax (613) 951-0562. □



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You'll Never Regret It!

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"Discouraged workers"	Autumn 1989
Unemployment: A tale of two sources	Winter 1989
Time lost: An alternative view of unemployment	Spring 1990
Shifting patterns of unemployment distribution since the 1960s	Autumn 1990
Then and now: The changing face of unemployment	Spring 1991
Unemployment – occupation makes a difference	Winter 1991
A note on Canadian unemployment since 1921	Autumn 1992
Discouraged workers – where have they gone?	Autumn 1992
Alternative measures of unemployment	Winter 1992
A note on the self-initiated training of job-losers	Spring 1994
Who gets UI?	Summer 1994

UNIONIZATION

Unionization and women in the service sector	Autumn 1989
Working for minimum wage	Winter 1989
Are jobs in large firms better jobs?	Autumn 1991
A note on wage trends among unionized workers	Autumn 1993

WOMEN

On maternity leave	Summer 1989
Unionization and women in the service sector	Autumn 1989
Wives as primary breadwinners	Spring 1990
Male-female earnings gap among recent university graduates	Summer 1990
Trading places: Men and women in non-traditional occupations, 1971-86	Summer 1990
Who's looking after the kids? Child care arrangements of working mothers	Summer 1991
Women's earnings and family incomes	Summer 1991
Women approaching retirement	Autumn 1991
Women and RRSPs	Winter 1991
Absences from work revisited	Spring 1992
Alimony and child support	Summer 1992
A degree of change	Winter 1992
Female lone parents in the labour market	Spring 1993
Women in academia – a growing minority	Spring 1993
Employed parents and the division of housework	Autumn 1993
Defining and measuring employment equity	Winter 1993
Balancing work and family responsibilities	Spring 1994
Declining female labour force participation	Summer 1994
Left behind: Lone mothers in the labour market	Summer 1994
Baby boom women	Winter 1994
Work-related sexual harassment	Winter 1994

WORK ARRANGEMENTS

The changing face of temporary help	Summer 1989
Moonlighters	Winter 1989
A note on self-employment	Winter 1991
A note on the Work Sharing Program	Winter 1991
Non-standard work arrangements	Winter 1991
Hard at work	Spring 1992
Working shift	Spring 1993

Flexitime work arrangements	Autumn 1993
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Work arrangements of Canadians – an overview	Autumn 1993
Balancing work and family responsibilities	Spring 1994
Weekend workers	Summer 1994
Working "9 to 5"	Summer 1994
Ever more moonlighters	Autumn 1994
Involuntary part-timers	Autumn 1994
Jobs! Jobs! Jobs!	Autumn 1994
The hours people work	Autumn 1994
Voluntary part-time workers	Autumn 1994

YOUTHS AND STUDENTS

Youth for hire	Summer 1989
Working for minimum wage	Winter 1989
Apprentices: Graduate and drop-out labour market performances	Spring 1991
Juggling school and work	Spring 1992
A degree of change	Winter 1992
School, work and dropping out	Summer 1993
Labour market outcomes for high school leavers	Winter 1993
Youths – waiting it out	Spring 1994

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The gift of time	Summer 1990
Getting there	Summer 1994

SPECIAL INSERTS (CHARTS)

Census facts	Summer 1993
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Key labour and income facts

The following selection of labour and income indicators is drawn from 11 sources and includes published and unpublished annual data. These indicators appear in every issue.

The latest annual figures are always shown; as results become available, the indicators are updated so that every issue contains new data. An indicator updated or revised since the last issue is "flagged" with an asterisk.

Data sources

The indicators are derived from the following sources:

- 1-13 & 15 Labour Force Survey**
Frequency: Monthly
Contact: Doug Drew (613) 951-4720
- 14 Survey of Consumer Finances**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Kevin Bishop (613) 951-2211
- 16 Absence from Work Survey**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Nancy Brooks (613) 951-4589
- 17 National Work Injuries Statistics Program**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Joanne Proulx (613) 951-4040
- 18 Help-wanted Index**
Frequency: Monthly
Contact: André Picard (613) 951-4045
- 19-20 Unemployment Insurance Statistics Program**
Frequency: Monthly
Contact: André Picard (613) 951-4045

- 21-28 Survey of Employment, Payrolls and Hours**
Frequency: Monthly
Contact: Cindy Ingalls (613) 951-4090
- 29-31 Major wage settlements, Bureau of Labour Information (Human Resources Development)**
Frequency: Quarterly
Contact: Information (819) 997-3117
- 32-34 Labour income (Revenue Canada, Taxation; Survey of Employment, Payrolls and Hours; and other surveys)**
Frequency: Quarterly
Contact: Ed Bunko (613) 951-4048
- 35-45 Survey of Consumer Finances**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Kevin Bishop (613) 951-2211
- 46-52 Household Facilities and Equipment Survey**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Penny Barclay (613) 951-4634
- 53-54 Small area and administrative data**
Frequency: Annual
Contact: Customer Services (613) 951-9720

Notes and definitions of certain indicators are given at the end of the table.

Additional data

The table provides, at the most, two years of data for each indicator. A longer time series (generally 10 years) for this set of indicators can be obtained, on paper or diskette, at a cost of \$50. (A more extensive explanation of the indicators is also available.) This 10-year data set is updated quarterly. For information, contact Jeannine Usalcas at (613) 951-6889; fax (613) 951-4179.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
Labour market								
1	Labour force	'000	1992	13,797	236	64	416	331
			1993	13,946	234	65	419	332
	Change	%		1.1	-0.9	1.1	0.6	0.3
2	Participation rate	%	1992	65.5	53.6	65.8	59.9	59.0
			1993	65.2	52.8	65.3	59.8	59.0
3	Employed	'000	1992	12,240	188	53	361	289
			1993	12,383	186	53	357	291
	Change	%		1.2	-0.9	1.0	-1.1	0.6
4	Proportion of employed working part time	%	1992	16.8	13.5	16.4	17.5	15.6
			1993	17.3	14.2	17.2	17.8	16.0
5	Proportion of part-timers wanting full-time work	%	1992	32.5	62.1	43.4	45.5	45.9
			1993	35.5	63.8	43.5	47.7	50.4
6	Unemployed	'000	1992	1,556	48	11	55	42
			1993	1,562	47	12	61	42
	Change	%		0.4	-0.6	1.5	11.7	-1.6
7	Official unemployment rate	%	1992	11.3	20.2	17.7	13.1	12.8
			1993	11.2	20.2	17.7	14.6	12.6
Alternative measures of unemployment								
8	Unemployed 14 or more weeks as a proportion of the labour force	%	1992	5.5	10.2	7.3	6.0	5.4
			1993	5.6	10.7	7.8	7.0	5.4
9	Unemployment rate:							
	- of persons heading families with children under age 16	%	1992	9.7	19.0	17.4	10.9	11.5
			1993	9.5	19.1	17.9	12.5	11.4
	- excluding full-time students	%	1992	11.0	20.1	17.9	12.7	12.6
			1993	10.9	20.0	18.0	14.3	12.3
	- including full-time members of the Canadian Armed Forces	%	1992	11.2	20.1	17.6	12.8	12.6
			1993	11.1	20.1	17.7	14.2	12.4
	- of the full-time labour force	%	1992	13.6	23.6	21.4	16.6	16.0
			1993	13.9	24.0	21.6	18.3	16.1
	- of the part-time labour force	%	1992	14.1	21.7	12.0	16.7	15.6
			1993	14.4	21.5	13.0	18.0	15.7
	- including discouraged workers and others on the margins of the labour force	%	1992	12.1	24.4	18.7	14.1	14.8
			1993	12.0	24.4	18.9	15.6	14.2

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
3,385	5,286	535	480	1,370	1,693	1992	'000	1
3,404	5,362	540	479	1,384	1,728	1993		
0.6	1.4	0.9	-0.2	1.0	2.0		%	
62.5	67.3	66.0	66.6	71.9	66.3	1992	%	2
62.2	66.9	66.6	66.6	71.5	65.7	1993		
2,953	4,714	484	440	1,240	1,517	1992	'000	3
2,960	4,793	490	440	1,252	1,561	1993		
0.2	1.7	1.3	-	1.0	2.9		%	
15.1	17.3	19.4	18.4	16.4	18.0	1992	%	4
15.7	18.1	19.4	18.4	17.1	17.8	1993		
38.0	29.1	32.8	35.4	27.8	27.9	1992	%	5
41.9	32.0	34.3	38.2	31.7	30.0	1993		
432	572	51	39	130	176	1992	'000	6
444	569	50	38	132	167	1993		
2.9	-0.5	-2.8	-2.4	1.7	-5.0		%	
12.8	10.8	9.6	8.2	9.5	10.4	1992	%	7
13.1	10.6	9.2	8.0	9.6	9.7	1993		
6.8	5.4	4.0	3.4	3.8	4.5	1992	%	8
7.2	5.5	4.3	3.4	4.1	4.3	1993		
										9
10.6	9.1	8.1	7.3	8.5	9.1	1992	%	
10.3	8.9	7.6	7.0	9.0	8.0	1993		
12.6	10.3	9.2	8.0	9.3	10.3	1992	%	
12.8	10.2	8.8	7.8	9.2	9.5	1993		
12.7	10.8	9.5	8.2	9.4	10.4	1992	%	
13.0	10.6	9.2	8.0	9.5	9.6	1993		
15.3	12.8	12.4	11.4	11.3	12.8	1992	%	
15.8	13.1	12.2	11.3	11.7	12.0	1993		
15.3	14.8	12.9	9.6	13.1	11.9	1992	%	
16.8	14.0	12.3	10.9	14.5	12.5	1993		
14.2	11.3	10.2	8.8	9.9	10.7	1992	%	
14.6	11.0	9.9	8.5	9.9	10.1	1993		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
10	Underutilization rate based on hours lost through unemployment and underemployment	%	1992 1993	14.3 14.6	24.3 24.8	22.0 22.3	17.5 19.1	17.1 17.3
11	Proportion unemployed six months or longer	%	1992 1993	28.1 30.8	29.3 33.0	-- --	23.9 26.8	22.2 23.8
Other labour market indicators								
12	Employment/population ratio for persons aged:							
-	15 to 24 years	%	1992 1993	53.5 52.1	32.4 30.5	49.4 51.3	48.0 46.7	46.9 46.5
-	25 to 64 years	%	1992 1993	70.0 70.1	53.7 53.4	67.1 66.0	64.5 63.3	63.5 63.8
-	65 years and over	%	1992 1993	6.4 6.2	3.1 2.3	7.2 6.2	3.6 4.0	4.0 3.7
13	Employment by major class of worker:							
-	employees	'000	1992 1993	10,372 10,399	162 159	43 44	314 306	253 253
-	self-employed	'000	1992 1993	1,807 1,912	26 27	10 10	46 51	35 36
14	Men working full time, full year	'000	1991 1992	5,126 5,091	68 65	18 19	143 132	115 118
	Women working full time, full year	'000	1991 1992	3,419 3,423	45 48	13 13	93 96	79 82
15	Days lost per full-time worker per year through illness or for personal reasons	days	1992 1993	9.2 9.3	10.7 9.4	7.9 7.7	9.0 9.8	8.9 8.5
16	Proportion of paid workers absent two or more consecutive weeks because of illness or accident	%	1992 1993	5.6 5.8	4.1 4.8	4.0 4.6	5.4 6.1	6.0 5.5
17	Workers receiving Workers' Compensation for time-loss injuries	'000	1991 1992	521 456	9 8	2 2	13 12	12 10
	Change	%		-12.5	-17.3	-6.3	-4.3	-14.2
18	Help-wanted Index (1991 = 100)		1992 1993	86 87	88 82	96 117	87 88	82 89

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
15.8	13.6	13.1	12.1	12.1	13.3	1992	%	10
16.4	13.9	13.0	12.2	12.6	12.7	1993		
33.1	29.8	23.6	21.0	20.4	22.5	1992	%	11
34.2	33.3	26.9	23.2	24.4	24.2	1993		
										12
48.8	55.3	58.3	54.4	59.7	58.8	1992	%	
46.9	53.7	58.4	55.1	58.6	57.5	1993		
65.3	72.2	73.6	76.6	75.3	72.2	1992	%	
65.4	72.5	74.5	76.6	75.3	72.1	1993		
4.7	7.0	7.1	12.6	10.1	5.0	1992	%	
4.1	6.8	7.8	13.3	9.5	5.2	1993		
										13
2,545	4,068	399	328	1,007	1,253	1992	'000	
2,529	4,095	403	327	1,007	1,275	1993		
394	630	80	102	224	259	1992	'000	
415	674	83	104	232	279	1993		
1,264	1,981	194	188	534	621	1991	'000	14
1,237	1,999	199	187	510	624	1992		
819	1,388	122	114	331	415	1991	'000	
825	1,393	133	108	325	401	1992		
10.7	9.0	8.4	8.1	7.7	8.6	1992	days	15
10.4	9.1	9.7	8.6	7.9	9.3	1993		
5.9	5.2	7.8	3.8	5.9	5.8	1992	%	16
6.3	5.5	5.5	4.3	4.5	7.1	1993		
179	155	18	13	39	79	--	1	1991	'000	17
146	137	17	12	32	78	--	1	1992		
-18.1	-11.9	-8.6	-5.6	-17.1	-1.6	--	-2.3		%	
87	86	93	83	76	87	1992		18
92	86	91	83	80	84	1993		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
Unemployment insurance								
19	Total beneficiaries	'000	1992	1,388	81	16	65	67
			1993	1,292	71	16	63	65
	Change	%		-6.9	-13.1	0.8	-2.4	-2.1
20	Regular beneficiaries without reported earnings	'000	1992	1,005	63	11	46	51
			1993	931	56	11	44	49
	Change	%		-7.5	-12.2	-0.3	-3.4	-4.4
Earnings (including overtime) and hours								
21	Average weekly earnings in current dollars	\$	1992	549.80	510.65	444.70	491.10	494.39
			1993	559.24	526.86	453.74	495.80	503.30
	Change	%		1.7	3.2	2.0	1.0	1.8
22	Average weekly earnings in 1986 dollars	\$	1992	429.20	418.22	350.43	391.31	395.51
			1993	428.87	424.54	350.92	390.39	397.55
	Change	%		-0.1	1.5	0.1	-0.2	0.5
23	Average weekly earnings of salaried employees in current dollars	\$	1992	691.04	621.71	599.84	621.34	624.15
			1993	705.03	641.80	608.24	620.64	637.67
	Change	%		2.0	3.2	1.4	-0.1	2.2
24	Average weekly earnings of salaried employees in 1986 dollars	\$	1992	539.45	509.18	472.69	495.09	499.32
			1993	540.67	517.16	470.41	488.69	503.69
	Change	%		0.2	1.6	-0.5	-1.3	0.9
25	Average weekly earnings of hourly paid employees in current dollars	\$	1992	421.51	381.63	285.01	375.98	393.56
			1993	428.70	406.10	297.56	382.35	402.62
	Change	%		1.7	6.4	4.4	1.7	2.3
26	Average weekly earnings of hourly paid employees in 1986 dollars	\$	1992	329.05	312.56	224.59	299.59	314.85
			1993	328.76	327.24	230.13	301.06	318.03
	Change	%		-0.1	4.7	2.5	0.5	1.0
27	Average weekly hours of hourly paid employees	hrs	1992	30.5	33.5	30.4	31.7	33.1
			1993	30.6	33.9	30.7	31.7	33.4
28	Average weekly overtime hours of hourly paid employees	hrs	1992	0.8	0.9	0.3	0.6	0.7
			1993	0.9	1.0	0.4	0.6	0.7
Major wage settlements								
29	Number of agreements		1992	493	11	5	5	14
			1993	499	15	3	10	3
30	Number of employees	'000	1992	1,318	28	7	5	30
			1993	1,415	37	6	18	3
31	Effective wage increase in base rates	%	1992	2.1	0.1	0.3	1.8	1.6
			1993	0.7	0.1	-	5.2	2.8

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
433	400	40	31	97	154	2	2	1992	'000	19
404	365	37	29	90	146	2	2	1993		
-6.6	-8.9	-6.8	-4.9	-7.0	-5.4	33.0	-6.4		%	
322	285	26	21	69	108	1	2	1992	'000	20
302	257	24	20	63	101	2	2	1993		
-6.2	-9.6	-7.9	-7.7	-8.5	-6.7	35.0	-9.8		%	
537.13	578.30	488.66	472.35	546.59	549.09	677.86	714.13	1992	\$	21
543.14	591.13	492.6	473.95	554.15	561.23	678.78	705.38	1993		
1.1	2.2	0.8	0.3	1.4	2.2	0.1	-1.2		%	
417.35	448.29	385.30	371.93	432.43	431.67	1992	\$	22
416.20	450.56	378.34	362.35	433.27	426.47	1993		
-0.3	0.5	-1.8	-2.6	0.2	-1.2		%	
654.66	733.38	632.38	618.11	703.25	682.99	835.62	813.88	1992	\$	23
662.07	752.50	641.92	623.42	717.06	703.37	845.26	822.55	1993		
1.1	2.6	1.5	0.9	2.0	3.0	1.2	1.1		%	
508.67	568.51	498.72	486.70	556.37	536.94	1992	\$	24
507.33	573.55	493.03	476.62	560.64	534.48	1993		
-0.3	0.9	-1.1	-2.1	0.8	-0.5		%	
429.49	436.08	365.83	336.67	387.98	441.91	494.62	576.41	1992	\$	25
435.35	444.36	369.75	336.15	398.57	446.85	472.39	556.94	1993		
1.4	1.9	1.1	-0.2	2.7	1.1	-4.5	-3.4		%	
333.71	338.05	288.51	265.09	306.95	347.41	1992	\$	26
333.60	338.69	283.99	257.00	311.63	339.55	1993		
-	0.2	-1.6	-3.1	1.5	-2.3		%	
31.5	30.6	30.0	28.3	29.3	29.2	31.0	33.1	1992	hrs	27
31.6	30.7	29.7	27.9	29.7	29.1	30.6	32.1	1993		
0.7	0.9	0.7	0.7	1.1	0.8	2.2	2.6	1992	hrs	28
0.8	1.0	0.7	0.7	1.3	0.8	1.7	2.7	1993		
90	174	17	8	44	66	1992		29
120	146	18	13	54	48	1993		
469	347	19	12	77	170	1992	'000	30
559	235	41	40	101	103	1993		
1.1	2.4	2.4	3.3	3.6	3.5	1992	%	31
0.2	1.4	0.8	1.1	0.3	2.3	1993		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
Labour income								
32	Labour income in current dollars	\$ million	1992	386.4	5.1	1.2	9.6	7.7
			1993	396.3	5.2	1.3	9.8	7.9
	Change	%		2.6	0.9	2.8	1.5	2.7
33	Labour income per employee in current dollars	\$	1992	36,300	31,200	27,700	30,400	29,900
			1993	37,000	32,000	28,000	31,900	30,600
	Change	%		1.9	2.6	1.3	4.9	2.6
34	Labour income per employee in 1986 dollars	\$	1992	28,400	25,600	21,800	24,300	23,900
			1993	28,400	25,800	21,700	25,100	24,200
	Change	%		0.1	1.0	-0.6	3.7	1.3
35	Net income from self-employment as a proportion of money income	%	1991	5.5	3.7	6.6	4.4	4.2
			1992	5.1	3.3	6.5	3.7	4.3
Earnings of full-time, full-year workers								
36	Average earnings of men working full time, full year	\$	1991	38,600	33,400	30,500	35,300	34,700
			1992	39,500	36,200	32,600	37,600	35,200
	Change	%		2.3	8.3	6.6	6.7	1.2
37	Average earnings of women working full time, full year	\$	1991	26,800	24,500	24,700	23,200	23,000
			1992	28,400	25,200	26,100	24,900	24,700
	Change	%		5.6	2.8	5.7	7.1	7.3
38	Ratio of female-to-male earnings	%	1991	69.6	73.4	80.8	65.8	66.1
			1992	71.8	69.7	80.1	66.0	70.2
Family income								
39	Average family income	\$	1991	53,100	41,700	42,800	45,100	44,300
			1992	53,700	42,100	44,400	46,900	46,500
40	Median family income	\$	1991	46,700	36,600	38,000	39,400	38,700
			1992	47,700	36,800	39,400	40,500	41,700
41	Average income of unattached individuals	\$	1991	22,500	18,200	16,500	19,100	19,900
			1992	23,200	19,600	18,800	18,800	19,000
42	Median income of unattached individuals	\$	1991	17,300	13,100	12,200	14,700	15,100
			1992	17,600	13,900	14,400	13,100	14,300
43	Average family taxes	\$	1991	10,500	6,700	7,000	8,100	7,600
			1992	10,300	6,700	7,100	8,500	7,900
44	Average family income after tax	\$	1991	42,600	35,000	35,800	37,000	36,700
			1992	43,400	35,500	37,200	38,400	38,600

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
90.0	162.6	12.8	9.9	37.0	48.3	0.6	1.2	1992	\$ million	32
91.9	165.6	13.0	10.0	38.0	51.4	0.6	1.2	1993		
2.1	1.8	1.8	1.3	2.7	6.5	0.8	3.1		%	
34,600	39,100	31,600	29,600	35,000	37,000	1992	\$	33
35,200	39,500	31,900	30,100	35,800	38,600	1993		
1.8	1.0	0.8	1.7	2.3	4.4		%	
26,900	30,300	25,000	23,300	27,700	29,100	1992	\$	34
27,000	30,100	24,500	23,000	28,000	29,300	1993		
0.4	-0.7	-1.8	-1.3	1.1	0.9		%	
4.3	5.7	6.7	10.3	6.4	5.5	1991	%	35
4.2	5.3	6.5	8.7	4.4	6.4	1992		
36,700	41,500	31,900	31,900	39,300	38,700	1991	\$	36
37,300	42,200	34,900	32,700	38,700	40,900	1992		
1.6	1.6	9.2	2.6	-1.5	5.7		%	
25,700	29,000	23,800	22,100	25,300	27,100	1991	\$	37
27,600	30,400	24,500	23,100	27,200	28,600	1992		
7.1	4.8	2.6	4.4	7.5	5.4		%	
70.1	69.8	74.7	69.4	64.5	70.2	1991	%	38
73.9	71.9	70.2	70.6	70.3	70.0	1992		
48,600	58,600	46,600	45,900	55,600	54,900	1991	\$	39
48,600	58,800	50,300	48,200	54,700	56,400	1992		
42,700	52,000	41,300	40,900	48,100	50,600	1991	\$	40
43,800	52,800	43,700	41,300	47,700	50,300	1992		
20,700	24,700	20,400	20,000	23,500	22,600	1991	\$	41
21,100	26,300	18,900	20,300	22,900	23,400	1992		
15,200	20,000	16,000	14,600	19,100	18,200	1991	\$	42
15,000	20,300	14,600	14,600	17,700	20,600	1992		
10,100	11,800	8,300	8,600	11,000	10,600	1991	\$	43
9,400	11,700	9,100	8,200	10,200	10,900	1992		
38,500	46,900	38,300	37,400	44,500	44,300	1991	\$	44
39,200	47,100	41,200	40,000	44,500	45,500	1992		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.		Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
45	Proportion below the low income cut-offs (1992 base):							
	– families	%	1991 1992	12.9 13.3	16.2 18.4	10.6 7.2	12.9 13.8	12.3 11.5
	– unattached individuals	%	1991 1992	40.0 39.7	50.8 44.5	49.0 38.1	40.2 48.5	39.7 40.3
	– persons (population)	%	1991 1992	16.5 16.8	18.1 20.7	15.4 11.4	16.2 17.8	14.9 14.0
	– children (less than 18 years)	%	1991 1992	18.9 18.9	20.3 26.4	17.3 12.3	21.0 20.5	19.2 15.6
	– elderly (65 years and over)	%	1991 1992	21.7 20.6	20.6 21.7	19.7 14.5	19.0 20.0	15.5 13.8
	Households and dwellings							
46	Estimated number of households and dwellings	'000	1992 1993	10,056 10,247	177 182	46 47	329 336	256 256
47	Average household income	\$	1991 1992	46,100 46,800	39,200 39,500	37,700 39,400	39,800 40,600	40,200 41,500
48	Proportion of households with:							
	– VCRs	%	1992 1993	73.8 77.3	74.6 76.9	69.6 74.5	75.4 77.7	73.4 78.9
	– microwaves	%	1992 1993	76.0 79.1	68.9 72.0	69.6 76.6	76.9 79.5	76.2 82.0
	– two or more automobiles	%	1992 1993	24.6 23.8	11.9 14.8	23.9 25.6	20.1 19.4	19.9 21.5
	– vans and trucks	%	1992 1993	26.8 28.4	36.2 33.5	32.6 34.0	28.9 27.7	34.0 36.7
	– air conditioners	%	1992 1993	26.7 25.7	-- --	-- --	4.9 3.9	6.6 10.2
49	Proportion of all dwellings that are owner-occupied	%	1992 1993	63.1 64.1	78.5 78.6	69.6 74.5	71.4 72.3	75.4 76.2
50	Proportion of all owner-occupied dwellings that are mortgage free	%	1992 1993	50.6 48.3	68.3 70.6	53.1 54.3	57.0 53.1	56.0 52.8
51	Dwellings in need of repair as a proportion of all occupied dwellings	%	1992 1993	26.7 22.0	31.1 31.3	28.2 25.6	34.3 27.1	32.4 26.1
52	Median rent-to-income ratio	%	1992 1993	22 22	16 16	23 20	22 24	19 19

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
										45
15.4	11.2	17.4	13.6	13.0	10.6	1991	%	
14.8	11.1	14.2	13.8	16.2	13.5	1992		
47.8	34.9	43.5	37.2	36.2	39.1	1991	%	
48.9	33.6	48.3	38.3	39.8	34.1	1992		
19.5	14.0	22.7	17.8	16.6	15.4	1991	%	
18.7	14.0	19.9	18.1	20.2	17.1	1992		
20.1	17.5	29.3	21.9	19.5	14.5	1991	%	
18.3	16.2	23.3	22.8	24.2	19.8	1992		
27.3	19.7	24.7	12.4	21.1	21.8	1991	%	
28.9	15.9	23.6	12.1	24.0	20.8	1992		
2,656	3,647	396	359	912	1,278	1992	'000	46
2,688	3,765	387	361	923	1,302	1993		
41,600	51,500	39,700	39,600	48,700	46,000	1991	\$	47
41,900	51,800	42,500	41,200	48,000	48,000	1992		
										48
69.1	76.8	71.2	69.4	78.4	73.3	1992	%	
72.6	79.7	75.5	71.7	82.3	78.6	1993		
72.9	77.7	75.5	81.3	81.0	73.6	1992	%	
75.9	80.0	79.8	84.8	84.8	78.0	1993		
20.9	27.9	22.2	21.7	28.4	25.0	1992	%	
22.7	25.6	22.5	21.3	26.5	22.6	1993		
17.4	23.3	31.1	44.6	43.4	35.1	1992	%	
17.3	25.6	35.7	44.3	44.7	39.2	1993		
14.0	48.6	49.0	34.3	10.0	7.5	1992	%	
15.3	44.7	45.7	33.8	8.9	9.1	1993		
55.0	63.9	67.4	71.6	65.5	65.7	1992	%	49
56.4	64.4	69.5	71.7	67.8	66.1	1993		
47.3	48.0	56.2	60.3	47.9	54.5	1992	%	50
46.3	46.6	53.9	60.6	45.7	47.1	1993		
25.1	25.4	32.1	30.6	28.7	24.8	1992	%	51
20.7	20.9	26.6	23.8	25.7	20.4	1993		
20	23	23	21	21	25	1992	%	52
21	23	22	20	23	25	1993		

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

No.	Unit	Year	Canada	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.
53 Labour force income profile							
Number of taxfilers	'000	1992	19,267	385	89	624	512
Income:							
Number reporting	'000	1992	19,649	394	91	642	525
Amount	\$ million	1992	486,751	7,442	1,832	13,881	10,715
Median	\$	1992	18,600	13,800	15,900	16,200	15,200
Canadian index (median income)	%	1992	100.0	74.2	85.5	87.1	81.7
Labour force income:							
Number reporting	'000	1992	14,281	289	69	451	373
Amount	\$ million	1992	367,898	5,806	1,375	10,280	8,075
Employment income:							
Number reporting	'000	1992	13,928	273	68	438	361
Amount	\$ million	1992	350,358	4,779	1,175	9,500	7,241
Median	\$	1992	19,900	10,200	12,000	16,800	14,700
Canadian index (median employment income)	%	1992	100.0	51.3	60.3	84.4	73.9
Self-employment income:							
Number reporting	'000	1992	1,993	32	11	53	36
Amount	\$ million	1992	21,415	255	106	684	343
Unemployment Insurance benefits:							
Number reporting	'000	1992	3,446	150	31	147	143
Amount	\$ million	1992	17,541	1,027	200	780	834
54 Economic dependency profile							
Transfer payments:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	90,397	2,223	513	3,266	2,693
Employment income	\$ million	1992	350,358	4,779	1,175	9,500	7,241
Economic dependency ratio (EDR)		1992	25.80	46.52	43.63	34.38	37.20
Canadian index (EDR)	%	1992	100.0	180.3	169.1	133.3	144.2
Unemployment Insurance benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	17,541	1,027	200	780	834
Contribution to EDR	%	1992	5.01	21.50	17.05	8.21	11.52
Family Allowance benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	2,831	64	15	92	77
Contribution to EDR	%	1992	0.81	1.34	1.24	0.97	1.06
Federal sales tax credits:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	2,740	68	15	98	84
Contribution to EDR	%	1992	0.78	1.43	1.24	1.03	1.16
Child Tax Credit benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	2,419	65	14	85	74
Contribution to EDR	%	1992	0.69	1.37	1.22	0.90	1.02
Old Age Security benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	11,807	199	59	402	318
Contribution to EDR	%	1992	3.37	4.16	5.02	4.23	4.39
CPP/QPP benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	15,116	229	63	551	385
Contribution to EDR	%	1992	4.31	4.78	5.37	5.80	5.31
Other pension benefits:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	20,154	257	78	753	483
Contribution to EDR	%	1992	5.75	5.37	6.62	7.93	6.66
Non-taxable income/provincial tax credits:							
Amount	\$ million	1992	17,790	314	69	504	439
Contribution to EDR	%	1992	5.08	6.57	5.86	5.30	6.07

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Yukon	N.W.T.	Year	Unit	No.
53										
4,861	7,211	771	653	1,741	2,368	19	33	1992	'000	
4,972	7,332	788	669	1,765	2,418	19	33	1992	'000	
112,382	198,714	17,183	14,283	45,555	62,748	558	1,018	1992	\$ million	
17,000	20,700	16,400	15,800	19,300	19,500	24,300	22,000	1992	\$	
91.4	111.3	88.2	84.9	103.8	104.8	130.6	119.4	1992	%	
3,500	5,353	553	486	1,384	1,778	17	29	1992	'000	
85,877	149,875	12,471	10,075	35,582	47,071	494	915	1992	\$ million	
3,392	5,232	541	478	1,359	1,740	16	28	1992	'000	
80,457	144,653	11,999	9,689	34,376	45,143	468	879	1992	\$ million	
19,200	22,300	17,600	15,100	19,800	20,500	23,900	23,900	1992	\$	
96.5	112.1	88.4	75.9	99.5	103.0	120.1	120.1	1992	%	
358	722	104	139	254	278	3	2	1992	'000	
4,413	8,807	855	972	1,799	3,144	20	18	1992	\$ million	
1,037	1,054	114	91	261	407	5	6	1992	'000	
5,419	5,223	472	386	1,207	1,929	27	36	1992	\$ million	
54										
22,406	35,166	3,502	2,899	6,609	10,957	61	102	1992	\$ million	
80,457	144,653	11,999	9,689	34,376	45,143	468	879	1992	\$ million	
27.85	24.31	29.19	29.92	19.23	24.27	12.98	11.58	1992		
107.9	94.2	113.1	116.0	74.5	94.1	50.3	44.9	1992	%	
5,419	5,223	472	386	1,207	1,929	27	36	1992	\$ million	
6.74	3.61	3.93	3.98	3.51	4.27	5.70	4.10	1992	%	
693	1,015	119	116	295	334	3	9	1992	\$ million	
0.86	0.70	0.99	1.20	0.86	0.74	0.71	1.03	1992	%	
760	925	121	105	240	318	2	4	1992	\$ million	
0.94	0.64	1.01	1.09	0.70	0.70	0.48	0.51	1992	%	
616	784	119	121	255	274	3	9	1992	\$ million	
0.77	0.54	0.99	1.25	0.74	0.61	0.54	0.97	1992	%	
2,868	4,472	569	517	857	1,538	4	5	1992	\$ million	
3.56	3.09	4.74	5.34	2.49	3.41	0.78	0.58	1992	%	
3,499	6,146	637	561	1,092	1,942	6	5	1992	\$ million	
4.35	4.25	5.31	5.79	3.18	4.30	1.26	0.60	1992	%	
4,182	8,594	774	640	1,493	2,886	8	7	1992	\$ million	
5.20	5.94	6.45	6.60	4.34	6.39	1.69	0.82	1992	%	
4,370	8,007	692	452	1,171	1,737	8	26	1992	\$ million	
5.43	5.54	5.77	4.67	3.41	3.85	1.81	2.96	1992	%	

See Notes and definitions at end of table.

Key labour and income facts

Notes and definitions

No.

- 1 Persons aged 15 and over who are employed or unemployed.
- 2 The labour force as a proportion of the population aged 15 and over.
- 4 Persons who usually work less than 30 hours per week.
- 7 The unemployed as a proportion of the labour force.
- 8 This rate and rates shown as Indicators 9 and 10 are described in *Perspectives on Labour and Income* (Statistics Canada, Catalogue 75-001E) 4, no. 4 (Winter 1992): 35-43.
- 9 The full-time labour force includes persons working full time, those working part time involuntarily, and unemployed persons seeking full-time work.

The part-time labour force includes persons working part time voluntarily and unemployed persons seeking part-time work.

Discouraged workers and others on the margins of the labour force are persons who have looked for work in the past six months, but not during the reference week because they believed none was available or because they were waiting for recall or for replies from employers.

- 10 The rate shows hours lost through unemployment (unemployed multiplied by average actual weekly hours) and through underemployment (that is, short-time work schedules and involuntary part-time employment) as a proportion of hours worked plus hours lost.
- 12 The number of persons employed in an age group expressed as a percentage of the population for that age group.
- 13 Employees work for an employer for remuneration, usually in the form of a wage or salary.

Self-employed workers are working owners of incorporated or unincorporated businesses with or without paid help.

No.

- 29 Data are for agreements involving bargaining units of 500 or more employees. The total includes federal and provincial agreements.
- 32 Labour income comprises gross wages and salaries (including directors' fees, bonuses, commissions, gratuities, taxable allowances and retroactive pay) and supplementary labour income (payments made by employers for the benefit of employees, including contributions to health and welfare schemes, pension plans, Workers' Compensation and Unemployment Insurance).
- 33 Labour income per employee is calculated using LFS estimates of paid workers excluding those absent without pay during the entire reference week.
- 45 For an explanation of the methodology underlying the low income cut-offs, see *Income Distributions by Size in Canada* (Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207).
- 52 The rent-to-income ratio refers to rent in the reference year divided by income in the previous year.
- 53-54 Data are derived from tax returns filed in the spring of the year following the reference year. The mailing address at the time of filing determines the province.

Economic dependency ratio:

$$\text{EDR} = \frac{\text{Total transfer payments}}{\text{Total employment income}} \times 100$$

(Example: An EDR of 23.47 indicates that for each \$100 in employment income earned by Canadians in 1991, an additional \$23.47 of income was received in the form of transfer payments.)

In the works

Here are some of the topics to be featured in upcoming issues of Perspectives on Labour and Income.

■ **The labour market: Year-end review**

A wrap-up of changes and trends in the labour market in 1994.

■ **Canada's newest workers**

According to the 1991 Census of Population, the Canadian workforce included 366,000 people who immigrated to Canada from 1986 to 1991. These new workers were responsible for over a quarter of employment growth during that period. As well, they reflected the shift in immigrants' origins away from Europe and Great Britain to Asia, the Caribbean, and Central and South America.

■ **The horseless carriage**

To say that automobiles play an important role in today's economy is to state the obvious. But just how large is the automotive industry? It is not only the manufacturing of cars and trucks – it also extends into the trade and service sectors.

■ **Absences from work**

Between 1983 and 1993, time lost from work because of illness or disability declined while days lost as a result of personal and family demands have seen a gradual but steady increase. This study examines rates and levels by industry.

■ **Proceedings from the Symposium on the Greying of the Workforce**

A summary of the one-day Symposium on the Greying of the Workforce, which explored the myths and realities of older workers' situation, as well as the implications of, and responses to, this growing phenomenon.

■ **Multi-factor productivity**

When productivity increases in a sector, does it mean employment growth? This article explores the question, and introduces a new concept: multi-factor productivity.

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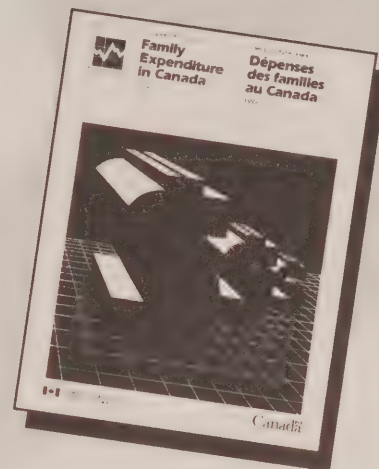
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